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J. C. Talbot

A NEW

Geographical, Hiſtorical, and Commercial

GRAMMAR;

AND

PRESENT STATE

OF THE SEVERAL

KINGDOMS OF THE WORLD.

CONTAINING

I. The Figures, Motions, and Diſtances of the Planets, according to the Newtonian Syſtem and the lateſt Obſervations.

II. A general View of the Earth conſidered as a Planet; with ſeveral uſeful Geographical Definitions and Problems.

III. The grand Diviſions of the Globe into Land and Water, Continents and Iſlands.

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V. Their Climate, Air, Soil, vegetable Productions, Metals, Minerals, natural Curioſities, Seas, Rivers, Bays, Capes, Promontories, and Lakes.

VI. The Birds and Beaſts peculiar to each Country.

VII. Obſervations on the Changes that have been any where obſerved upon the Face of Nature ſince the moſt early Periods of Hiſtory.

VIII. The Hiſtory and Origin of Nations; their Forms of Government, Religion, Laws, Revenues, Taxes, naval and military Strength.

IX. The Genius, Manners, Cuſtoms, and Habits of the People.

X. Their Language, Learning, Arts, Sciences, Manufactures, and Commerce.

XI. The chief Cities, Structures, Ruins, and artificial Curioſities.

XII. The Longitude, Latitude, Bearings, and Diſtances of principal Places from London.

XIII. A General Index.

With a TABLE of the COINS of all Nations, and their Value in ENGLISH MONEY.

By WILLIAM GUTHRIE, Eſq.

ILLUSTRATED WITH

A NEW AND CORRECT SET OF LARGE MAPS, Engraved by Mr. KITCHIN, Geographer.

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GRAMMARS

AND

PRESENT STATE

OF THE

KINGDOMS OF THE WORLD.

EUROPE.

FRANCE.

HAVING gone over the Britiſh iſles, we ſhall now return to the continent, beginning with the extenſive and mighty kingdom of France, being the neareſt to England; though part of Germany and Poland lies to the northward of France.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 600	between	5 and 8 weſt and eaſt long.
Breadth 500		42 and 51 north lat.

BOUNDARIES.] It is bounded by the Engliſh channel and the Netherlands, on the north; by Germany, Switzerland, and Italy, eaſt; by the Mediterranean and the Pyrenean mountains, which divides it from Spain, ſouth; and by the Bay of Biſcay, weſt.

DIVISIONS.] This kingdom is divided, and the dimenſions of the ſeveral parts diſtinctly ſpecified in the following table, by Mr. Templeman.

France.	Countries Names.	Square Miles.	Length	Breadth	Chief Cities.
Papiſts	Orleannois	22,050	230	180	Orleans
	Guienne	12,800	216	120	Bourdeaux
	Gaſcoigne	8,800	125	90	Aux or Augh
	Languedoc	13,175	200	115	Thouloufe
	Lyonnois	12,500	175	130	Lyon
	Champagne	10,000	140	110	Rheims
	Bretagne	9,100	170	105	Rennes
	Normandy	8,200	155	85	Rouen
	Provence	6,800	95	92	Aix
	Burgundy	6,700	150	86	Dijon
	Dauphine	5,820	107	90	Grenoble
	Iſle of France	5,200	100	85	PARIS
	French Compte	4,000	100	60	Beſancon
	Picardy	3,650	120	87	Amiens
	Rouſillon	1,400	50	44	Perpignan
	Total—	131,095			

The French Netherlands will be found under the title Netherlands.

NAME AND CLIMATE.] France took its name from the Francs, a German nation, who conquered the Gauls, the antient inhabitants. By its ſituation, it is the moſt compact kingdom perhaps in the world, and well fitted for every purpoſe both of power and commerce; and ſince the beginning of the 15th century, their inhabitants have fully availed themſelves of their natural advantages. The air, particularly that of the interior parts of the kingdom, is in general mild and wholeſome; but ſome late authors think it is not near ſo ſalubrious as is pretended; and it muſt be acknowledged, that the French have been but too ſucceſsful in giving the inhabitants of Great Britain falſe prepoſſeſſions in favour of their own country. It muſt be owned, that their weather is more clear and ſettled than in England. In the northern provinces, however, the winters are more intenſely cold, and the inhabitants not ſo well ſupplied with firing, which in France is chiefly of wood.

SOIL AND WATER.] France is happy in an excellent ſoil, which produces corn, wine, oil, and almoſt every luxury of life. Some of their fruits have a higher flavour than thoſe of England; but neither their paſturage or tillage are comparable to ours. The heats in many parts burn up the ground, ſo that it has no verdure, and the ſoil barely produces as much rye and cheſnuts, as ſerve to ſubſiſt the poor inhabitants; but the chief misfortune attending the French ſoil is, that the inhabitants having but a precarious ſecurity in their own property, do not apply themſelves ſufficiently to cultivation and agriculture. Nature, however, has done wonders for them, and both animal and vegetable productions are found there in vaſt plenty.

The French have of late endeavoured to ſupply the loſs ariſing from their precarious title to their lands, by inſtituting academies of agriculture, and propoſing premiums for its improvement, as in England; but thoſe expedients, however ſucceſsful they may be in particular inſtances, can never become of national utility in any but a free country, where the huſbandman is ſure of enjoying the fruit of his labour. It muſt at the ſame time be admitted, that the French exceed perhaps the Engliſh themſelves in the theory of agriculture. No nation is better ſupplied than France is with wholeſome ſprings and water; of which the inhabitants make excellent uſe, by the help of art and engines, for all the conveniencies of life. I ſhall afterwards ſpeak of their canals and mineral waters.

MOUNTAINS.] The chief mountains in France, or its borders, are, The Alps, which divide France from Italy. The Pyrenees,

Pyrenées, which divide France from Spain. Vauge, which divides Lorrain from Burgundy and Alsace. Mount Jura, which divides Franche Compte, from Switzerland. The Cevennes, in the province of Languedoc; and Mount Dor, in the province of Auvergne.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The principal rivers in France are, the Loire, the Rhone, the Garonne, and the Seine. The Loire takes its course north and north-west, being, with all its windings, from its source to the sea, computed to run about 500 miles. The Rhone flows on south-west to Lyons, and then runs on due south till it falls into the Mediterranean. The Garonne rises in the Pyrenean mountains, takes its course, first, north-east, and has a communication with the Mediterranean by means of a canal, the work of Lewis XIV. The Seine, soon after its rise, runs to the north-west, visiting Troyes, Paris, and Rouen, in its way, and falls into the English channel at Havre. To these we may add, the Soane, which falls into the Rhone at Lyons; the Charente, which rises near Havre de Grace, runs in and discharges itself in the Bay of Biscay. The Rhine, which rises in Switzerland, is the eastern boundary between France and Germany, and receives the Moselle and the Sarte in its passage. The Somme, which runs north-west through Picardy, and falls into the English channel below Abbeville. The Var, which rises in the Alps, and runs south, dividing France from Italy, falls into the Mediterranean west of Nice. The Adour runs from east to west, through Gascoigne, and falls into the Bay of Biscay below Bayonne.

The vast advantage, both in commerce and conveniency, which arises to France from those rivers, is wonderfully improved by the artificial rivers and canals which form the chief glory of the reign of Lewis XIV. That of Languedoc was begun in the year 1666, and compleated in 1680: it was intended for a communication between the ocean and the Mediterranean, for the speedier passage of the French fleet; but though it was carried on at an immense expence, for 100 miles, over hills and vallies, and even through a mountain in one place, it has not answered that purpose. By the canal of Calais, travellers easily pass by water from thence to St. Omer, Graveline, Dunkirk, Yper, and other places. The canal of Orleans is another noble work, and runs a course of 18 leagues, to the immense benefit of the public and the royal revenue. France abounds with other canals of the like kind, which render her inland navigation inexpressibly commodious and beneficial.

Few lakes are found in this country. There is one at the top of a hill near Alegre, which the vulgar report to be bottomleſs. There is another at Iſſoire, in Auvergne; and one at La Beſſe, in which if you throw a ſtone, it cauſes a noiſe like thunder.

MINERAL WATERS AND REMARKABLE SPRINGS. The waters of Bareges, which lie near the borders of Spain, under the Pyrenean mountains, have of late been preferred to all the others of France, for the recovery of health. The beſt judges think, however, that the cures performed by them, are more owing to their accidental ſucceſs, with ſome great perſons, and the ſalubrity of the air and ſoil, than the virtues of the waters. The waters of Sultzbach in Alſace, cure the palſey, weak nerves, and the ſtone. At Bagueiis, not far from Bareges, are ſeveral wholeſome minerals and baths, to which people reſort as to the Engliſh baths, at ſpring and autumn. Forges in Normandy is celebrated for its mineral waters, and thoſe of St. Amand cure the gravel and obſtructions. It would be endleſs to enumerate all the other real or pretended mineral wells in France, therefore I muſt omit them, as well as many remarkable ſprings: but there is one near Aigne in Auvergne, which boils violently, and makes a noiſe like water thrown upon lime; it has little or no taſte, but has a poiſonous quality, and the birds that drink of it die inſtantly.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Languedoc is ſaid to contain veins of gold and ſilver. Alſace has mines of ſilver and copper, but they are too expenſive to be wrought. Alabaſter, black marble, jaſper, and coal, are found in many parts of the kingdom. Britany abounds in mines of iron, copper, tin, and lead. At Laverdau, in Cominges, there is a mine of chalk. At Berry there is a mine of oker, which ſerves for melting of metals, and for dying, particularly the beſt drab-cloths; and in the province of Anjou are ſeveral quarries of fine white ſtone. Some excellent turquoiſes (the only gem that France produces) are found in Languedoc; and great care is taken to keep the mines of marble and free-ſtone open all over the kingdom.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. France abounds in excellent roots, which are more proper for ſoups than thoſe of England. As to all kinds of ſeaſoning and ſallads, they are more plentiful, and in ſome places better than in England; they being, next to their vines, the chief object of their culture. The province of Gaſtmois produces great quantities of ſaffron. The wines of Champagne, Burgundy, Bourdeaux, Gaſcony, and other provinces

provinces of France, are so well known, that they need only to be mentioned. It is sufficient to observe, that though they differ very sensibly in their taste and properties, yet all of them are excellent, particularly those of Champagne, Burgundy, Bourdeaux, Pontacke, Hermitage, and Frontiniac; and there are few constitutions, be they ever so valetudinary, to which some one or other of them is not adapted. Oak, elm, ash, and other timber common in England, is found in France; but it is said, that the internal parts of the kingdom begin to feel the want of fuel. A great deal of salt is made at Rhee, and about Rochfort on the coast of Saintoign. Languedoc produces an herb called kali, which when burnt makes excellent pot-ashes. The French formerly were famous for horticulture, but they are at present far inferior to the English both in the management and disposition of their gardens. Prunes and capers are produced at Bourdeaux and near Toulon.

France contains few animals, either wild or tame, that are not to be found in England, excepting wolves. Their horses, black cattle, and sheep, are far inferior to the English; nor is the wool of their sheep so fine. The hair and skin of the chamois, or mountain goats, are more valuable than those of England. We know of no difference between the marine productions of France and those of England, but that the former is not so well served, even on their sea-coasts, with salt-water fish.

FORESTS.] The chief forests of France are those of Orleans, which contain 14,000 acres of wood of various kinds, oak, elm, ash, &c. and the forest of Fontainbleau near as large; and near Morchismoir is a forest of tall, strait timber, of 4000 trees. Besides these, large numbers of woods, some of them deserving the name of forests, lie in different provinces; but too remote from sea carriage to be of national utility.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] If we believe some French writers, France contains 20,000,000 of inhabitants; but the calculation is certainly overstrained by at least 4,000,000, and of the remainder near 200,000 are ecclesiastics. I shall not dispute the populousness of France in former times, but it is certain that the number of her natives, and those too the most useful to the public, have, during the last and present century, been greatly reduced, first, by the revocation * of the edict of Nantes,

* In the year 1598, Henry IV. who was a Protestant, and justly stiled the Great, after fighting his way to the crown of France, passed the famous edict of Nantes, which secured

Nantes, by Lewis XIV. and other religious perſecutions; ſecondly, by her perpetual wars; thirdly, by her emigrants to her colonies. Some writers make perhaps the numbers too low, when they fix them at 13,000,000. It is evident however that there is a great defect of population in the interior provinces.

The French, in their perſons, are rather lower than their neighbours; but they are well proportioned and active, and more free than other nations in general from bodily deformities. The ladies are celebrated more for their ſprightly wit than perſonal beauty; the peaſantry in general are remarkably ordinary, and are beſt deſcribed by being contraſted with women of the ſame ranks in England. The nobility and gentry accompliſh themſelves in the academical exerciſes of dancing, fencing, and riding; in the practice of which, they excel all their neighbours in ſkill and gracefulneſs. They are fond of hunting; and the gentry have now left off their heavy jack-boots, their huge war-ſaddle, and monſtrous curb-bridle, in that exerciſe; and accommodate themſelves to the Engliſh manner. The landlords are as jealous of their game as they are in England, and equally niggardly of it to their inferiors. A few of the French princes of the blood, and nobility, are more magnificent in their palaces and equipages than any of the Engliſh; but the other ranks of life are deſpicable, when compared to the riches, elegance, and opulence, not only of the Engliſh nobility and gentry in general, but to the middling people.

The genius and manners of the French are well known, and have been the ſubject of many able pens. A national vanity is their predominant character, and they are perhaps the only people ever heard of, who have derived great utility from a national weakneſs. It ſupports them under misfortunes, and impells them to actions to which true courage inſpires other nations. This character, however, is conſpicuous only in the higher and middling ranks, where it produces excellent officers, for the common ſoldiers of France have few or no ideas of heroiſm. Hence it has been obſerved, with great juſtice, of the French and Engliſh, that the French officers will lead, if their ſoldiers will follow, and the Engliſh ſoldiers will follow, if their officers will lead. This ſame principle of vanity is of admirable uſe to the government, becauſe

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ſecured to the Proteſtants the free exerciſe of their religion, but this edict was revoked by Lewis XIV. which, with the ſucceeding perſecution, drove that people to England, Holland, and other Proteſtant countries, where they eſtabliſhed the ſilk manufactures, to the great prejudice of their own country.

becauſe the lower ranks, when they ſee their ſuperiors elated, as in the time of the laſt war with England, under the moſt diſgraceful loſſes, never think that they are unfortunate; thence proceeds the paſſive ſubmiſſion of the French under all their calamities.

The French affect freedom and wit, but their converſation is commonly confined to faſhionable dreſſes and diverſions. Their diverſions are much the ſame with thoſe of the Engliſh, but their gallantry is of a very different complexion. Their attention to the fair, degenerates into groſs foppery in the men, and in the ladies it is kept up by admitting of indecent freedoms; but the ſeeming levities of both ſexes are ſeldom attended with that criminality which, to people not uſed to their manners, they ſeem to indicate; nor are the huſbands ſo indifferent as we are apt to imagine, about the conduct of their wives. The French are exceſſively credulous and litigious; but of all people in the world, they bear adverſity and reduction of circumſtances with the beſt grace; but in proſperity they are intolerably inſolent, vain, arbitrary and imperious. An old French officer is an entertaining and inſtructive companion, and indeed the moſt rational ſpecies of all the French gentry.

The French may be characterized as being well mannered, rather than well bred. They are indiſcriminately complaiſant and officious, but they ſeldom know how to adjuſt their behaviour to the ſituation and character of thoſe they converſe with. All is a repeated round of politeneſs, which for want of diſcernment becomes affected, often ridiculous, and always diſguſtful to ſentimental people.

The French have been cenſured for inſincerity; but this is a fault which they poſſeſs in no greater degree than their neighbours, and the imputation is generally owing to their exceſs of civility, which throws a ſuſpicious light upon their candour. The French, in private life, have juſt as much virtue as other European nations, and have given as many proofs of generoſity, and diſintereſtedneſs; but this is far from being the character of their government, which has prepoſſeſſed the Engliſh againſt the whole nation, and when the French are no longer formidable, they will be no longer thought faithleſs.

It is doing the French no more than juſtice to acknowledge that they have given a poliſh to the ferocious manners and even virtues of other nations. They have long poſſeſſed the lead in taſte, faſhion, and dreſs, but it ſeems now to be in the wane, and they begin to think, that the Engliſh are not barbarians. This alteration of opinion has not however taken

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its riſe from their wits, their learned men, their courtiers, not the middle ranks of life. The ſuperior orders of men in France are of a very different caſt from thoſe below them. They ſee with indignation the frivolouſneſs of their court, and however complying they may appear in public, when retired, they keep themſelves ſacred from its follies. Independent by their rank and fortunes, they think and act for themſelves. They are open to conviction, and examine things to the bottom. They ſaw during the late war the management of their armies, their finances and fleets, with ſilent indignation, and their reſearches were favourable to the Engliſh. The concluſion of the late peace, and the viſits which they have ſince paid to England, have improved that good opinion, the courtiers themſelves have fallen in with it, and what ſome years ago would have been thought incredible, people of faſhion in France now ſtudy the Engliſh language, and imitate them in their cuſtoms, amuſements, dreſs, and buildings. They both imitate and admire our writers; the names of Milton, Pope, Addiſon, Hume, Robertſon, Richardſon, and many others of the laſt and preſent century, are ſacred among the French of any education; and to ſay the truth, the writings of ſuch men have equally contributed, with our military reputation, to raiſe the name of Great Britain, to that degree, in which it has been held of late by foreign nations, and to render our language more univerſal, and even a neceſſary ſtudy among foreign nobility. But we cannot quit this article of the manners and cuſtoms of the French, without giving a more minute view of ſome diſtinguiſhing peculiarities obſervable among that whimſical people in private life, and this from the remarks of an ingenious and well informed writer of the preſent age.

The natural levity of the French, ſays he, is reinforced by the moſt prepoſterous education, and the example of a giddy people, engaged in the moſt frivolous purſuits. A Frenchman is by ſome prieſt or monk taught to read his mother tongue, and to ſay his prayers in a language he does not underſtand. He learns to dance and to fence by the maſters of thoſe ſciences. He becomes a compleat connoiſſeur in dreſſing hair, and in adorning his own perſon, under the hands and inſtructions of his barber and valet de chambre. If he learns to play upon the flute or the fiddle, he is altogether irreſiſtible. But he piques himſelf upon being poliſhed above the natives of any other country, by his converſation with the fair ſex. In the courſe of this communication, with which he is indulged from his tender years, he learns like a parrot, by rote, the whole

whole circle of French compliments, which are a ſet of phraſes, ridiculous even to a proverb; and theſe he throws out indiſcriminately to all women without diſtinction, in the exerciſe of that kind of addreſs, which is here diſtinguiſhed by the name of gallantry. It is an exerciſe, by the repetition of which he becomes very pert, very familiar, and very impertinent. A Frenchman, in conſequence of his mingling with the females from his infancy, not only becomes acquainted with all their cuſtoms and humours, but grows wonderfully alert in performing a thouſand little offices, which are overlooked by other men, whoſe time hath been ſpent in making more valuable acquiſitions. He enters, without ceremony, a lady's bedchamber, while ſhe is in bed, reaches her whatever ſhe wants, airs her ſhift, and helps to put it on. He attends at her toilette, regulates the diſtribution of her patches, and adviſes where to lay on the paint. If he viſits her when ſhe is dreſſed, and perceives the leaſt impropriety in her coeffure, he inſiſts upon adjuſting it with his own hands. If he ſees a curl, or even a ſingle hair amiſs, he produces his comb, his ſciſſars, and pomatum, and ſets it to rights with the dexterity of a profeſſed frizeur. He ſquires her to every place ſhe viſits, either on buſineſs or pleaſure; and, by dedicating his whole time to her, renders himſelf neceſſary to her occaſions. In ſhort, of all the coxcombs on the face of the earth, a French *petit maitre* is the moſt impertinent; and they are all *petite maitres*, from the marquis who glitters in lace and embroidery, to the *garcon barbiere*, (barber's boy) covered with meal, who ſtruts with his hair in a long queue, and his hat under his arm.

A Frenchman will ſooner part with his religion than his hair. Even the ſoldiers in France wear a long queue; and this ridiculous foppery has deſcended, as I ſaid before, to the loweſt claſs of people. The boy who cleans ſhoes at the corner of a ſtreet, has a tail of this kind hanging down to his rump; and the beggar who drives an aſs, wears his hair *en queue*, though, perhaps, he has neither ſhirt nor breeches.

I ſhall only mention one cuſtom more, which ſeems to carry human affectation to the very fartheſt verge of folly and extravagance: that is, the manner in which the faces of the ladies are primed and painted. It is generally ſuppoſed that part of the fair ſex, in ſome other countries, make uſe of *fard* and vermilion for very different purpoſes, namely, to help a bad or faded complexion, to heighten the graces, or conceal the defects of nature, as well as the ravages of time. I ſhall not enquire whether it is juſt and honeſt to impoſe in this manner on mankind; if it is not honeſt, it may be allowed to be artful

artful and politic, and shews, at least, a desire of being agreeable. But to lay it on as the fashion in France prescribes to all the ladies of condition, who indeed cannot appear without this badge of distinction, is to disguise themselves in such a manner as to render them odious and detestable to every spectator who has the least relish left for nature and propriety. As for the *fard*, or *white*, with which their necks and shoulders are plaistered, it may be in some measure excusable, as their skins are naturally brown, or sallow; but the *rouge*, which is daubed on their faces, from the chin up to the eyes, without the least art or dexterity, not only destroys all distinction of features, but renders the aspect really frightful, or at least conveys nothing but ideas of disgust and aversion. Without this horrible mask no married lady is admitted at court, or in any polite assembly, and it is a mark of distinction which none of the lower classes dare assume.

DRESS.] The French dress of both sexes is so well known that it is needless to expatiate upon them here; but, indeed, their dress in cities and towns is so variable, that it is next to impossible to describe it. They certainly have more invention in that particular than any of their neighbours, and their constantly changing their fashions is of infinite service to their manufactures. With regard to the English, they possess one capital superiority, which is, that the cloaths of both sexes, and their ornaments, are at least one third cheaper.

When a stranger arrives in Paris he finds it necessary to send for the taylor, peruquier, hatter, shoemaker, and every other tradesman concerned in the equipment of the human body. He must even change his buckles, and the form of his ruffles: and, though at the risk of his life, suit his cloaths to the mode of the season. For example, though the weather should be ever so cold, he must wear his *habit d'été*, or *demi-saison*, without presuming to put on a warm dress before the day which fashion has fixed for that purpose; and neither old age nor infirmity will excuse a man for wearing his hat upon his head, either at home or abroad. Females are, if possible, still more subject to the caprices of fashion. All their sacks and negligees must be altered and new trimmed. They must have new caps, new laces, new shoes, and their hair new cut. They must have their taffaties for the summer, their flowered silks for the spring and autumn, their sattins and damasks for winter. The men too must provide themselves with a camblet suit trimmed with silver for spring and autumn, with silk cloaths for summer, and cloth laced with gold, or velvet for winter; and he must wear his bag-wig *a la pigeon*. This va-

riety of dreſs is abſolutely indiſpenſible for all thoſe who pretend to any rank above the meer vulgar; all ranks, from the king downwards, uſe powder; and even the rabble, according to their abilities, imitate their ſuperiors in the fripperies of faſhion. The common people of the country, however, ſtill retain, without any material deviation, the old faſhioned modes of dreſs, the large hat and moſt enormous jack-boots, with ſuitable ſpurs, and this contraſt is even perceivable a few miles from Paris. In large cities, the clergy, lawyers, phyſicians, and merchants, generally dreſs in black; and it has been obſerved, that the French nation, in their modes of dreſs, are in ſome meaſure governed by commercial circumſtances.

RELIGION.] The religion of France is Roman Catholic, in which their kings have been ſo conſtant, that they have obtained the title of Moſt Chriſtian; and the pope, in his Bull, gives the king of France the title of Eldeſt Son of the Church. The Gallican church has more than once attempted to ſhake off the yoke of the Popes, and made a very great progreſs in the attempt during the reign of Lewis XIV. but it was defeated by the ſecret bigotry of that prince, who, while he was bullying the pope, was inwardly trembling under the power of the Jeſuits, a ſet that is now exterminated from that kingdom. Though the French clergy are more exempt than ſome others from the papal authority, their church confining the pope's power entirely to things relating to ſalvation, yet they are in general great enemies to any thing that looks like reformation in religion; and poſſeſſed as they are of immenſe property, there muſt be a thorough coalition in opinion between the king and his parliaments, before any eccleſiaſtical reformation can take place; a proſpect which ſeems at preſent very diſtant, notwithſtanding the differences between the pope and his moſt Chriſtian majeſty. In the ſouthern parts of France, the clergy and magiſtrates are as intolerant as ever, and the perſecutions of the proteſtants, or, as they are called, Hugonots, who are very numerous in thoſe provinces, ſtill continue. In ſhort, the common people of France diſcover no diſpoſition towards a reformation in religion, which, if ever it takes place, muſt probably be effected by the ſpirit of the parliaments. I ſhall not enter into the antiquated diſputes between the Moliniſts and the Janſeniſts, nor the different ſects of Quietiſts and Bourignons, that prevail among the Roman Catholics themſelves, nor into the diſputes that prevail between the parliament and clergy about the bull Unigenitus, which advances the pope's power above that of the crown,

crown. The ſtate of religion in France is a ſtrong proof of the paſſive diſpoſition of the natives, and the bigotry of their kings, who, in complaiſance to the pope, have depopulated their kingdom, as I have already hinted, of its moſt uſeful inhabitants. It muſt at the ſame time be owned, that the Hugonots, while they ſubſiſted in a manner as a ſeparate ſtate within France, did not ſhew any remarkable proofs of their moderation, either in religion or government.

ARCHBISHOPRICS, BISHOPRICS, &c.] In the whole kingdom there are 17 archbiſhops, 113 biſhops, 770 abbies for men, 317 abbies and priories for women, beſides a great number of leſſer convents, and 250 commanderies of the order of Malta; but many of the abbies and nunneries have been lately ſuppreſſed, and the revenues ſeized by the king. The eccleſiaſtics of all ſorts are computed at near 200,000, and their revenues at about ſix millions ſterling. The king nominates all archbiſhops, biſhops, abbots, and priors, and can tax the clergy without a papal licence or mandate: accordingly, not many years ſince, he demanded the twentieth penny of the clergy, and, to aſcertain that, required them to deliver in an inventory of their eſtates and incomes; to avoid which, they voluntarily made an offer of the annual ſum of twelve millions of livres, over and above the uſual free gift, which they pay every five years.

The archbiſhop of Lyons is count and primate of France. The archbiſhop of Sens, is primate of France and Germany. The archbiſhop of Paris, is duke and peer of the realm; and the archbiſhop of Rheims, is duke and peer, and legate of the holy ſee.

LANGUAGE.] One of the wiſeſt meaſures of Lewis XIV. was his encouragement of every propoſal that tended to the purity and perfection of the French language. He ſucceeded ſo far as to render it the moſt univerſal of all the living tongues, a circumſtance that tended equally to his greatneſs and his glory, for his court and nation thereby became the ſchool of the arts, ſciences, and politeneſs. The French language, at preſent, is chiefly compoſed of words radically derived from the Latin, with many German derivatives, introduced by the Franks. It is at preſent on the decay, its corner ſtones, fixed under Lewis XIV. are as it were looſened; and in the preſent mode of writing and expreſſing themſelves, the modern French abandon that grammatical ſtandard, which alone can render a language claſſical and permanent.

As to the properties of the language, they are undoubtedly greatly inferior to the Engliſh, but they are well adapted to ſubjects

ſubjects void of elevation or paſſion. It is well accommodated to dalliance, compliments, and common converſation.

The Lord's Prayer in French is as follows: *Nôtre Pére qui ès aux cieux, ton nom ſoit ſanctifié. Ton regne vienne. Ta volonte ſoit faite en la terre comme au ciel. Donne nous aujourd'huy notre pain quotidien. Pardonne nous nos offences, comme nous pardonnons a ceux qui nous ont offencez. Et ne nous indui point en tentation, mais nous delivre du mal: car a toi eſt le regne, la puiſſance, & la gloire aux ſiécles des ſiécles.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The French, like the other nations of Europe, were for many centuries immerſed in barbarity. The firſt learning they began to acquire, was not of that kind which improves the underſtanding, corrects the taſte, or regulates the affections. It conſiſted in a ſubtle and quibbling logic, which was more adapted to pervert than to improve the faculties. But the ſtudy of the Greek and Roman writers, which firſt aroſe in Italy, diffuſed itſelf among the French, and gave a new turn to their literary purſuits. This, together with the encouragement which the polite and learned Francis I. gave to all men of merit, was extremely beneficial to French literature. During this reign, many learned men appeared in France, whoſe labours are well known, and highly eſteemed all over Europe. The two Stephens, in particular, are names which every real ſcholar mentions with reſpect. It was not, however, till the ſeventeenth century, that the French began to write with elegance in their own language. The Academie Françoiſe was formed for this purpoſe; and though their labours, conſidered as a body, were not ſo ſucceſsful as might have been expected, ſome particular academicians have done great ſervice to letters. In fact, literary copartnerſhips are ſeldom very ſucceſsful. Of this we have a remarkable example in the preſent caſe. The Academy publiſhed a dictionary for improving the French language: it was univerſally deſpiſed. Furetieres, a ſingle academician, publiſhes another: it meets with univerſal approbation.

Lewis XIV. was the Auguſtus of France. The protection he gave to letters, and the penſions he beſtowed on learned men, both at home and abroad, which, by calculation, did not amount to above 12,000 l. per annum, have gained him more glory than all the military enterpriſes, upon which he expended ſo many millions. The learned men who appeared in France during this reign, are too numerous to be mentioned. Their tragic poets, Racine and Corneille, the firſt diſtinguiſhed for tenderneſs, the ſecond for majeſty, and both

for the ſtrength and juſtneſs of their painting, the elegance of their taſte, and their ſtrict adherence to the rules of the drama, are, next to the Greek tragedians, the moſt perfect maſters in this ſpecies of writing. Moliere would have exhauſted the ſubjects of comedy, were they not every where inexhauſtible, and particularly in France. In works of ſatire, and in criticiſm, Boileau, though a cloſe imitator of the antients, is not deficient in genius. But France has not as yet produced an epic poem that can be mentioned with Milton's; nor a genius of the ſame extenſive and univerſal kind with Shakeſpeare, equally fitted for the gay and the ſerious, the humorous and the ſublime. In the eloquence of the pulpit and of the bar, the French are greatly our ſuperiors: Boſſuet, Bourdaloue, Flechier, and Maſſillon, have carried pulpit eloquence to a degree of perfection, which we may approach to, but never can ſurpaſs. The genius, however, of their religion and government, is extremely unfavourable to all improvements in the moſt uſeful branches of philoſophy. All the eſtabliſhments of Lewis XIV. for the advancement of ſcience, were not able to counterbalance the influence of the clergy, whoſe intereſt it is to keep mankind ignorant in matters of religion and morality; and the influence of the court and miniſtry, who have an equal intereſt in concealing the natural rights of mankind, and every ſound principle of government. The French have not therefore ſo many good writers on moral, religious, or political ſubjects, as have appeared in Great Britain. But France has produced ſome great men who do honour to humanity, whoſe career no obſtacle could ſtop, whoſe freedom no government however deſpotic, no religion however ſuperſtitious, could curb or reſtrain. Who is ignorant of Paſcal, or the archbiſhop of Cambray? few men have done more ſervice to religion either by their writings or their lives. As for Monteſquieu, he is an honour to human nature: he is the legiſlator of nations; his works are read in every country and language, and, wherever they go, they enlighten and envigorate the human mind.

In the Belles Lettres and miſcellaneous way, no nation ever produced more agreeable writers; among whom we may place D'Argens and Voltaire as the moſt conſiderable.

Before the immortal Newton appeared in England, Deſcartes was the greateſt philoſopher in modern times. He was the firſt who applied algebra to the ſolution of geometrical problems, which naturally paved the way to the analytical diſcoveries of Newton. Many of the preſent age are excellent mathematicians; particularly D'Alembert, who, with

with all the preciſion of a geometer, has united the talents of a fine writer.

Since the beginning of the preſent century, the French have vied with the Engliſh in natural philoſophy. Buffon would deſerve to be reckoned among men of ſcience, were he not ſtill more remarkable for his eloquence than for his philoſophy. He is to be regarded as a philoſophical painter of nature; and under this view, his Natural Hiſtory is the firſt work of its kind.

Their painters, Pouſſin, Le Brun, and above all Le Sueur, did honour to the age of Lewis XIV. They have none at preſent to compare with them in the more noble kinds of painting; but Mr. Greuſe, for portraits and converſation pieces, never perhaps was excelled.

Sculpture is in general better underſtood in France than in England, or in any other nation. Their treatiſes on ſhipbuilding and engineering ſtand unrivalled; but in the practice of both they are outdone by the Engliſh. No genius has hitherto equalled Vauban in the theory or practice of fortification. The French were long our ſuperiors in architecture, though we now bid fair for ſurpaſſing them in this art.

We ſhall conclude this head with obſerving, that the French have now finiſhed the Cyclopedie, or general dictionary of arts and ſciences, which was drawn up in 26 volumes in folio, under the direction of meſſieurs D'Alembert and Diderot, and is the moſt complete collection of human knowledge we are acquainted with.

UNIVERSITIES AND PUBLIC COLLEGES.] Theſe literary inſtitutions have received an irreparable loſs by the expulſion of the jeſuits, who made the languages, arts, and ſciences, their particular ſtudy, and taught them all over France. It is not within my plan to deſcribe the different governments and conſtitutions of every univerſity or public college in France; but they are in number twenty-eight, as follow; Aix, Angiers, Arles, Avignon, Beſançon, Bourdeaux, Bourges, Caen, Cahors, Dol, Douay, Fleche, Montauban, Montpellier, Nantes, Orange, Orleans, Paris, Perpignan, Poitiers, Point Mouſon, Richlieu, Rheims, Soiſſons, Straſbourg, Toulouſe, Tournois, and Valence.

ACADEMIES.] There are eight academies in Paris, namely, three literary ones; that called the French Academy, that of Inſcriptions, and that of the Sciences; one of painting and ſculpture, one of architecture, and three for riding the great horſe and other military exerciſes.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Few countries, if we except Italy, can boaſt

of more valuable remains of antiquity than France. Some of the French antiquities belong to the time of the Celts, and conſequently, compared to them, thoſe of Rome are modern. Father Mabillon has given us a moſt curious account of the ſepulchres of their kings, which have been diſcovered ſo far back as Pharamond; and ſome of them when broken open were found to contain ornaments and jewels of value. At Rheims, and other parts of France, are to be ſeen triumphal arches; but the moſt entire is at Orange, erected on account of the victory obtained over the Cimbri and Teutones by Caius Marius and Luctatius Catulus. After Gaul was reduced to a Roman province, the Romans took vaſt delight in adorning it with magnificent edifices, both civil and ſacred, ſome of which are more entire than any to be met with in Italy itſelf. The ruins of an amphitheatre are to be found at Chalons, and likewiſe at Vienne. Niſmes, however, exhibits the moſt valuable remains of ancient architecture of any place in France. The famous Pont du Garde was raiſed in the Auguſtan age by the Roman colony of Niſmes, to convey a ſtream of water between two mountains, for the uſe of that city, and is as freſh to this day as Weſtminſter-bridge: it conſiſts of three bridges, or tires of arches one above another; the height is 174 feet, and the length extends to 723. The moderns are indebted for this, and many other ſtupendous aqueducts, to the ignorance of the ancients that all ſtreams will riſe as high as their heads. Many other ruins of antiquity are found at Niſmes, but the chief is the temple of Diana, whoſe veſtiges are ſtill remaining. The amphitheatre, which is thought to be the fineſt and moſt entire of the kind of any in Europe; but above all, the houſe erected by the emperor Adrian, called the Maiſon Carrie. The architecture and ſculpture of this building is ſo exquiſitely beautiful that it enchants even the moſt ignorant, and it is ſtill entire, being very little affected either by the ravages of time, or the havock of war. At Paris may be ſeen the remains of the palace of Thermæ, which was built by the emperor Julian, ſurnamed the Apoſtate, about the year 356, after the ſame model as the baths of Diocleſian. The remains of this ancient edifice are many arches, and within them a large ſalloon. It is fabricated of a kind of maſtic, the compoſition of which is not now known, intermixed with ſmall ſquare pieces of free ſtone and bricks.

At Arles in Provence is to be ſeen an obeliſk of oriental granite, which is 52 feet high, and 7 feet diameter at the baſe, and all but one ſtone. Roman temples are frequent in France. The moſt particular are in Burgundy and Guienne, and other

places

places beſides the neighbourhood of Niſmes, contain magnificent ruins of aqueducts. The paſſage cut through the middle of a rock near Briançon in Dauphiny, is thought to be a Roman work, if not of greater antiquity. The round buckler of maſſy ſilver, taken out of the Rhone in 1665, being twenty inches in diameter, and weighing twenty one pounds, containing the ſtory of Scipio's continence, is thought to be coeval with that great general. It would be endleſs to recount the different monuments of antiquity to be found in France, particularly in the cabinets of the curious.

I have already mentioned ſeveral remarkable ſprings and mountains which may be conſidered as natural curioſities. Some of the modern works of art, particularly the canals, have been already mentioned, and ſome ſubterraneous paſſages and holes, eſpecially at St. Aubin in Britany and Niont in Dauphiny, are really ſtupendous.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] Theſe are numerous in France, of which we ſhall mention only Paris, Liſle, and their principal ſea-ports, Breſt and Toulon.

Liſle, in French Flanders, is thought to be the moſt regular and ſtrongeſt fortification in Europe, and was the maſterpiece of the famous Vauban. It is generally garriſoned with above 10,000 regulars; and for its magnificence and elegance, it is called Little Paris. Its manufactures of ſilk, cambrick, and camblets, are very conſiderable; and its inhabitants amount to about 100,000. Every reader is acquainted with the hiſtory of Dunkirk, which the French have been obliged to demoliſh, but is ſtill a thorn in the ſide of the Engliſh, by being a harbour for their ſmugglers. The reſt of French Flanders, and its Netherlands, abound with fortified towns, which carry on very gainful manufactures.

Moving ſouthward, we come to the Iſle of France, the capital of which, and the whole kingdom, is Paris. This city has been ſo often deſcribed, that it may appear ſuperfluous to mention it more particularly, were it not that the vanity of the French has given it a preference, which it by no means deſerves, to all the capitals in the world, in every reſpect, not excepting even population. Many of the Engliſh have been impoſed upon in this reſpect; and I have already hinted at the reaſons, particularly the computing from the births and burials within the bills of mortality, which exclude the moſt populous pariſhes about London. Another miſtake lies in computing from births and marriages. The number of diſſenters of all kinds in and about London, who do not regiſter the births of their children, is amazing; and many of the poorer ſort cannot afford the expence of ſuch regiſtration. Another

peculiarity exiſting in London is, that moſt of the Londoners, who can afford the expence, when they find themſelves conſumptive, or otherwiſe indiſpoſed, retire into the country, where they are buried, and thereby excluded from the bills of mortality. The population of Paris therefore, where the regiſters are more exact and acceſſible to the poor, and where the religion and the police are more uniform and ſtrict, is far more eaſily aſcertained than that of London; and by the beſt accounts, it does not exceed 7 or 800,000, which is far ſhort of the inhabitants of London and the contiguous pariſhes.

Paris is divided into three parts; the city, the univerſity, and that which was formerly called the Town. The city is old Paris; the univerſity and the town are the new. Paris contains more works of public munificence than utility. Its palaces are more ſhewy, and ſome of its ſtreets, ſquares, hotels, hoſpitals, and churches, more ſuperbly decorated with a profuſion of paintings, tapeſtry, images, and ſtatues; but Paris, notwithſtanding its boaſted police, is greatly inferior to London in many of the conveniencies of life, and the ſolid enjoyments of ſociety. Without entering into more minute diſquiſitions, Paris, it muſt be owned, is the Paradiſe of ſplendor and diſſipation. The tapeſtry of the Gobelines * is unequalled for beauty and richneſs. The Louvre is a building that does honour to architecture itſelf; and the inſtitution of the French academy far exceeds any thing of the kind in England or elſewhere. The Tuilleries, the Palace of Orleans, or, as it is called, Luxembourg, where a valuable collection of paintings are ſhewn, the Royal palace, the King's Library, the Guild-Hall, and the hoſpital for invalids, are ſuperb to the higheſt degree. The city of Paris is ſaid to be fifteen miles in circumference. The hotels of the French nobleſſe at Paris, take up a great deal of room, with their court-yards and gardens; and ſo do their convents and churches. The ſtreets are very narrow, and the houſes very high, many of them ſeven ſtories. The houſes are built of ſtone, and are generally mean, even to wretchedneſs, owing partly to their containing a different family on every floor. The river Seine, which runs through the centre of the city, is not half ſo large as the Thames at London: it is too far diſtant from the ſea for the purpoſes of navigation, and is not furniſhed, as the Thames, with veſſels or boats of any ſort: over it are many ſtone and wooden bridges, which have nothing to recommend them. The ſtreets of Paris are generally crowded, particularly with coaches, which gives that capital the appearance of wealth

* One *Goblei*, a noted dyer at Rheims, was the firſt who ſettled in this place, in the reign of Francis I. and the houſe has retained his name ever ſince; and here the great Colbert, about the year 1667, eſtabliſhed that valuable manufactury.

wealth and grandeur; though, in reality, there is more ſhow than ſubſtance. The glittering carriages that dazzle the eyes of ſtrangers, are moſtly common hacks, hired by the day or week to the numerous foreigners who viſit that city; and in truth, the greateſt part of the trade of Paris ariſes from the conſtant ſucceſſion of ſtrangers that arrive daily from every nation and quarter of the globe. This aſcendency over other nations, is undoubtedly owing to the reputation of their language, their public buildings, the Gobelines, or manufacture of tapeſtry, their libraries, and collections of paintings, that are open to the public; the cheapneſs of proviſions, excellency of the French wines, and, above all, the purity of the air and climate in France. With all theſe advantages, however, Paris, in general, will not bear a compariſon with London in the more eſſential circumſtances of a thriving foreign and domeſtic trade, the cleanneſs of their ſtreets, elegance of their houſes, eſpecially within; the plenty of water, and that of a better quality than the Seine, which it is ſaid diſagrees with ſtrangers, as do likewiſe their ſmall wines. In the houſes of Paris, moſt of the floors are of brick, and have no other kind of cleaning than that of being ſprinkled with water, and ſwept once a day. Theſe brick floors, the ſtone ſtairs, the want of wainſcotting in the rooms, and the thick party-walls of ſtone, are, however, good preſervatives againſt fire, which ſeldom does any damage in this city. Inſtead of wainſcotting, the walls are covered with tapeſtry or damaſk. The beds in general are very good, and well ornamented, with teſter and curtains; but bugs are here a moſt intolerable nuiſance, which frequently oblige ſtrangers to ſleep on the floor during the exceſſive heat in the ſummer. Their ſhops are but poorly ſtored with goods; nor has their government made the proviſions that are ever in its power for the comfort of the inferior ranks; its whole attention ſeeming to be directed to the conveniency and ſplendor of the great. The ſhopkeepers and tradeſmen, an indolent loitering people, ſeldom make their appearance before dinner in any other than a morning dreſs, of velvet cap, ſilk night-gown, and Morocco ſlippers; but when they intend a viſit or going abroad, all the punctilios of a courtier are attended to, and hardly the reſemblance of a man remains. There is a remarkable contraſt between this claſs of people and thoſe of the ſame rank in London. In Paris, the women pack up parcels, enter the orders, and do moſt of the drudgery buſineſs of the ſhop, while the huſband loiters about, talks of the great, of faſhions and diverſions, the invincible force of their armies, and the ſplendor of the grand monarque. The Pariſians, however, as well as the

natives of France in general, are remarkably temperate in their living, and to be intoxicated with liquor is conſidered as infamous. Bread, and all manner of butchers meat and poultry, are extremely good in Paris; the beef is excellent; the wine they generally drink, is a very thin kind of Burgundy. The common people, in the ſummer ſeaſon, live chiefly on bread, butter, grapes, and ſmall wine. The Pariſians ſcarcely know the uſe of tea, but they have coffee in plenty. The police of Paris is ſo well attended to, that quarrels, accidents, or felonies, ſeldom happen; and ſtrangers from all quarters of the globe, let their appearance be ever ſo uncommon, meet with the moſt polite treatment. The ſtreets are patrolled at night by horſe and foot, ſo judiciouſly ſtationed, that no offender can eſcape their vigilance. They likewiſe viſit the publicans preciſely at the hour of twelve at night, to ſee that the company are gone; for in Paris no liquor can be had after that time. The public roads in France are under the ſame excellent regulation, which, with the torture of the rack, prevents robberies in that kingdom; but, for the ſame reaſons, when robberies do happen, they are always attended with the death of the unfortunate traveller; and indeed this is the general practice in every country of Europe, England and Scotland excepted.

The environs of Paris are very pleaſant, and contain a number of fine ſeats, ſmall towns, and villages; ſome of them being ſcattered on the edges of lofty mountains riſing from the Seine, are remarkably delightful.

The palace of Verſailles, which ſtands about 12 miles from Paris, though magnificent and expenſive beyond conception, and adorned with all that art can furniſh, is properly a collection of buildings, each of exquiſite architecture, but not forming a whole, agreeable to the grand and ſublime of that art. The gardens, however, and water-works (which are ſupplied by means of prodigious engines acroſs the Seine at Marli, about three miles diſtance) are aſtoniſhing proofs of the fertile genius of man, and highly worthy of a ſtranger's attention. Trianon, Marli, St. Germain en Laye, Meudon, and other royal palaces, are laid out with taſte and judgment; each has its peculiar beauties for the entertainment and amuſement of a luxurious court; but ſome of them are in a ſhameful condition, both as to repairs and cleanlineſs.

Breſt is a ſmall, but very ſtrong town, upon the Engliſh channel, with a moſt ſpacious and fine fortified road and harbour, the beſt and ſafeſt in all the kingdom: yet its entrance is difficult, by reaſon of many rocks lying under water. At Breſt is a court of admiralty, an academy for ſea-affairs, docks, and magazines for all kinds of naval ſtores, rope-yards, ſtore-houſes,

houſes, &c. inſomuch, that it may now be termed the capital receptacle on the ocean for the navy-royal of France, and is admirably well adapted for that end.

Lewis XIV. rendered Toulon, from a pitiful village, a ſea-port of great importance. He fortified both the town and harbour, for the reception and protection of the navy-royal. Its old and its new harbour lie contiguous; and by means of a canal, ſhips paſs from the one to the other, both of them having an outlet into the ſpacious outer harbour. Its arſenal, eſtabliſhed alſo by that king, has a particular ſtorehouſe for each ſhip of war, its guns, cordage, &c. being ſeparately laid up. Here are ſpacious workſhops for blackſmiths, joiners, carpenters, lockſmiths, carvers, &c. Its rope-walk of ſtone is 320 toiſes in length, with three arched walks. Its general magazine ſupplies whatever may be wanting in the particular ſtorehouſes, and contains an immenſe quantity of all kinds of ſtores, diſpoſed in the greateſt order.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Next to Henry IV. juſtly ſtiled the Great, the famous Colbert, a Scotſman, miniſter to Lewis XIV. may be called the father of the French commerce and manufactures. Under him there was a great appearance that France would make as illuſtrious a figure as a trading, as ſhe then did as a warlike people; but the truth is, the French do not naturally poſſeſs that undaunted perſeverance that is neceſſary for commerce and colonization, though no people, in theory, underſtand them better. It is to be conſidered, at the ſame time, that France, by her ſituation, by the turn of her inhabitants for certain manufactures, and the happineſs of her ſoil, muſt be always poſſeſſed of a great inland and neighbouring trade, which enriches her, and makes her the moſt reſpectable power upon the continent of Europe. I have already enumerated her natural commodities, to which may be added her manufactures of ſalt-petre, ſilk, embroidery, ſilver ſtuffs, tapeſtry, cambrics, lawns, fine laces, fine ſerges and ſtuffs, velvets, brocades, paper, brandy which is diſtilled from wine, a prodigious variety of toys, and other articles; many of which are ſmuggled into Great Britain, for which they are paid in ready money.

The ſilk manufacture was introduced into France ſo late as the reign of Henry IV. and in the age of his grandſon, Lewis XIV. the city of Tours alone employed 8000 looms, and 800 mills. The city of Lyons then employed 18,000 looms; but after the impolitic revocation of the edict of Nantes, the expulſion of the proteſtants, and the ruinous wars maintained by France, they decreaſed to 4000, and their ſilk manufacture is now rivalled by that of England, where the French pro-

teſtants took refuge, and were happily encouraged. On the other hand, the French woollen cloths and ſtuffs, more eſpecially at Abbeville, are ſaid to be now little inferior to thoſe of England and Holland, aſſiſted by the clandeſtine importation of Engliſh and Iriſh wool, and workmen from this country.

I have already mentioned the infinite advantage ariſing to her inland commerce by her rivers and navigable canals.

As to her foreign trade, it may be ſaid to extend all over the globe. It is a doubtful point whether the crown of France was a loſer by its ceſſion of Canada and part of Louiſiana at the late peace. But the moſt valuable part of Hiſpaniola in the Weſt Indies, which ſhe poſſeſſes by the partiality and indolence of Spain, is a moſt improveable acquiſition, and the moſt valuable of all her foreign colonies. In the Weſt Indies ſhe likewiſe poſſeſſes the important ſugar iſlands of Martinico and Guadaloupe, St. Lucia, St. Bartholomew, Deſeada, and Marigalante. Her poſſeſſions in North America ſince the late war, are only a ſmall tract upon the Miſiſſippi.

The French have ſtill poſſeſſions in the Eaſt Indies, of which Pondicherry and Mauritius are the principal; and had their genius been more turned for commerce than war, they might have engroſſed more territory and revenues than are now in poſſeſſion of the Engliſh; but they over-rated both their own power and their courage, and their Eaſt India company ſeems now to be at its laſt gaſp. We cannot anſwer for the conſequences if that trade ſhould be thrown open. They may be more fatal to England than beneficial to France. At preſent, (ſays Mr. Anderſon) "her land trade to Switzerland and Italy is by way of Lyons—To Germany, through Metz and Straſburgh—To the Netherlands, through Liſle—To Spain, (a moſt profitable one) through Bayonne and Perpignan. As for her naval commerce, her ports in the channel, and on the weſtern ocean, are frequented by all the trading nations in Europe, to France's very great advantage, more eſpecially reſpecting what is carried on with England, Holland, and Italy. The trade from her Mediterranean ports (more particularly from Marſeilles) with Turkey and Africa, has long been very conſiderable. The negro trade from Guinea ſupplies her ſugar colonies, beſides the gold, ivory, and drugs got from thence."

In the year 1739, France may be ſaid to have been in the zenith of her commerce. Favoured by Spain, and dreaded by all the reſt of Europe, her fleets covered the ocean, but ſhe truſted too much to her own ſelf-importance. Cardinal de Fleury, who then directed her affairs, took no care to protect her trade by proper naval armaments; ſo that the greater it

was,

was, it became the more valuable prey to the Engliſh when war broke out. It is, however, the happineſs of France that her wounds are ſoon cloſed, and it is hard to ſay how ſoon ſhe may recover all ſhe has loſt.

One great diſadvantage to the commerce of France is, that the profeſſion of a merchant is not ſo honourable as in England, and ſome other countries, ſo that the French nobility think it below them, which is the reaſon that the church, the law, and the army, are ſo full of that order. A great number of the cities of France have the privilege of coinage, and each of them a particular mark to diſtinguiſh their reſpective pieces, which, however, muſt be very embarraſſing, eſpecially to ſtrangers.

PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] The inſtitutions of public trading companies to Canada or New France, and the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, formerly coſt the French crown immenſe ſums, but we know none of them now ſubſiſting, tho' no doubt their Weſt India trade, which is ſtill very conſiderable, eſpecially in ſugar, is under proper regulations, preſcribed by their councils of commerce.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The conſtitution of France, in feudal times, was very unfavourable to monarchy, but the oppreſſions of the great landholders by degrees grew ſo irkſome to the ſubjects, that they preferred the monarchical to the ariſtocratical government. Ariſtocracy however ſtill ſubſiſted in ſome degree to the beginning of the laſt century, chiefly through the neceſſity which the Hugonots or proteſtants were under to have princes of the blood, and men of great quality for their leaders; but Richlieu, in the time of Lewis XIII. gave it a mortal blow, and all the civil diſputes in France ſince have been among great men for power and places, and between the kings and their parliaments, but the latter were ſeldom or never attended with any ſanguinary effects.

The preſent parliament of France has no analogy with that of Great-Britain. It was originally inſtituted to ſerve as a kind of law aſſiſtant to the aſſembly of the ſtates, which was compoſed of the great peers and landholders of the kingdom, and ever ſince it continued to be a law, and at laſt, a money court, and the members have had the courage of late to claim a kind of a negative power to the royal edicts, which they pretend can be of no validity till regiſtered by them. His moſt chriſtian majeſty has often tried to invalidate their acts and to intimidate their perſons; but, deſpotic as he is, he has never ventured to inflict any farther puniſhment than a ſlight baniſhment or impriſonment for their moſt provoking acts of diſobedience.

This ridiculous ſituation between power and privilege ſhews the infirmity of the French conſtitution, as the king dares not puniſh, and his parliament will not obey; but it diſcovers at the ſame time, that the nation in general thinks the parliament its natural guardian againſt the court.

The kingdom of France is divided into thirty governments, over each of which is appointed a king's lieutenant-general, a ſuperintendant, who pretty much reſembles the lord lieutenants in England, but their executive powers are far more extenſive. Diſtributive juſtice in France is adminiſtered by parliaments, chamber of accounts, courts of aid, preſidial courts, generalities, elections, and other courts. The parliaments were in number fifteen, thoſe of Paris, Toulouſe, Rouen, Grenoble, Bourdeaux, Dijon, Aix, Remes, Pau, Mets, Beſançon, Douay, Perpignan, Colmar, and Arras. Several of theſe parliaments however are now united into one. The parliament of Paris is the chief, and takes the lead in all national buſineſs. It is divided into ten chambers. The grand chamber is appropriated chiefly for the trial of peers. The Tournelle Civil judges in all matters of property above the value of 1000 livres. The Tournelle Criminel receives and decides appeals from inferior courts in criminal caſes. Beſides theſe three capital chambers, there are five of requeſts for receiving the depoſitions of witneſſes, and determining cauſes, pretty much in the ſame manner as our bills and anſwers in chancery and the exchequer.

The next court of judicature in France is the chamber of accounts, where all matters of public finances are examined, treaties of peace and grants regiſtered, and the vaſſalages due from the royal fiefs are received. The chambers are in number twelve, and held in the cities of Paris, Rouen, Dijon, Nantes, Montpelier, Grenoble, Aix, Pau, Blois, Liſle, Aire, and Dole.

The third court of judicature is the court of aid, where all matters that relate to the royal revenue, and the raiſing of money are determined.

The fourth are the preſidial courts, which are compoſed of judges for determining matters in appeal from magiſtrates of little towns and villages.

The next court are the generalities, who proportion the taxes to be raiſed in their diſtricts, according to the ſum that is appointed to be levied. They likewiſe take cognizance of matters relating to the crown lands, and certain branches of the revenue. Theſe courts are in number twenty-three, each conſiſting of twenty-three perſons, and they are diſtributed over the kingdom for the more convenient diſpatch of buſineſs.

Sub-

Subject to these generalities are the courts of elections, which settle the smaller proportions of taxes that are to be paid by parishes, and inferior districts, and how much each individual in the same is to pay. This is done by a collector, who returns the assessments to the court of generalities. Besides the above courts, the French have intendants of justice, police, and finances, whose powers, when properly executed, are of great service to the peace of the community. They have likewise provosts, seneschals, bailiffs, and other officers, whom we have no room to enumerate.

After the reader has been told of the excellency of the climate, and fertility of the soil in France; her numerous manufactures, and extensive commerce; her great cities, numerous towns, sea-ports, rivers and canals; the cheapness of provisions, wines, and liquors; the formidable armies and fleets she has sent forth to the terror of Europe; and the natural character of her inhabitants, their sprightliness and gaiety, he will undoubtedly conclude, that France is the most powerful nation, and her people the most opulent and happy in Europe. The reverse, however, appears to be the state of that nation at present; and we do not find that in any former period they were more rich or more happy.

True it is, that in a country so extensive and fruitful, her government finds immense resources in men and money; but, as if the French councils were directed by an evil genius, these resources, great as they are, by a wrong application have proved the ruin of the people. The most obvious causes of this national poverty took their rise from the ambition and vanity of their kings and leading men, which led them into schemes of universal dominion, the aggrandizement of their name, and the enslaving of Christendom. Their wars, which they sometimes carried on against one half of Europe, and in which they were generally unfortunate, led them into difficulties to which the ordinary revenues were inadequate; and hence proceeded the arbitrary demands upon the subject, under various pretences, in the name of loans, free gifts, &c. When these failed, other methods, more despotic and unwarrantable, such as raising and reducing the value of money as it suited their own purposes, national bankruptcies, and other grievous oppressions, were adopted, which gave the finishing blow to public credit, shook the foundations of trade, commerce, and industry, the fruits of which no man could call his own.

When we consider the motives of these wars, a desire to enslave and render miserable the nations around them, that man must be devoid of humanity whose breast is not raised with

with indignation upon the bare mention of the blood that has been ſpilt, the miſeries and deſolations that have happened, and the numerous places that have fallen a ſacrifice to their ambition. It appears too plain, from their late attack upon Corſica, that their own misfortunes have not taught them wiſdom or humanity, for while they thus graſp after foreign conqueſt, their own country exhibits a picture of miſery and beggary. Their towns, a very few excepted, make a moſt diſmal and ſolitary appearance. The ſhops are mean beyond deſcription; and the paſſengers, who ſaunter through a labyrinth of narrow dirty ſtreets, appear to be chiefly compoſed of prieſts and devotees, paſſing to or from maſs, hair-dreſſers, and beggars. That this is the appearance of their towns and many of their cities, we may appeal to the obſervation of any one who has been in that kingdom. Were it poſſible to mention a people more indigent than theſe citizens; we might deſcribe the farmers and peaſantry. We have in another place mentioned the natural advantages of France, where the hills are covered with grapes, and moſt extenſive plains produce excellent crops of corn, rye, and barley. Amidſt this profuſion of plenty, the farmer and his family barely exiſt upon the gleanings; and his cattle, which are ſeldom numerous, pick a ſubſiſtence in the ſummer months from the ſkirts of his fields. Here the farmer, meagre, diſpirited, and depreſſed, exhibits a ſpectacle of indigence hardly credible. And to ſee him plowing the ground with a lean cow, an aſs, and a goat yoked together, excites in an Engliſh traveller that pity to which human nature is entitled. He forgets the country while he feels for the man.

Many of the taxes and revenues in France are let out for a time to the beſt bidder, or, as it is there called, farmed; and theſe harpies, the farmers general, and their underlings, make no ſcruple of fleecing the people moſt unmercifully; and the reſidue, if any do remain, goes to ſatisfy the cravings of a numerous clergy, who in their turn are obliged, as well as the laity, to advance the government immenſe ſums, under the names of tenths and free gifts, excluſive of which, as I have obſerved elſewhere, they are now taxed with a certain ſum, to be paid annually. As oppreſſions are at preſent exerciſed in full vigour, and taxes increaſing, there is the greateſt probability that the bulk of the French nation will long remain that poor, unhappy, and miſerable people we have been repreſenting them, which in truth is a happy circumſtance for the liberties and the peace of Europe.

Revenues.] Nothing certain can be ſaid concerning the revenues of a prince who can command the purſes of all his ſub-

ſubjects. In 1716, the whole ſpecie of France in gold and ſilver was computed to be about ſeventeen millions ſterling; and though the crown was then doubly a bankrupt, being in debt about 100 millions ſterling, or 2,000 millions of livres, yet by laying hold of almoſt all the current money in the kingdom, and by arbitrarily raiſing or lowering the value of coins, in four years time the duke regent of France publiſhed a general ſtate of the public debts, by which it appeared the king ſcarcely owed 340 millions of livres. This being done by a national robbery, we can form no idea but that of deſpotiſm of the means by which ſo great a reduction was effected. The French court has not ſince that time bluſhed to own, to wit towards the concluſion of the late war, and alſo in 1769, that their king was bankrupt; and his miniſters have purſued meaſures pretty much ſimilar to thoſe practiſed by the regent to recruit the royal finances.

Some writers ſay that the annual revenues of France, ordinary and extraordinary, by the account of their own financiers, (including Lorrain) do not amount to clear ſix millions ſterling, which is equal to the natural revenue of England alone. Though I am apt to think that this calculation of the French revenues is rather too low, and that they may be fixed at ſeven millions; yet we are not to form our ideas of them from the great armaments, garriſons, and fortifications maintained by the French king, becauſe their expence is inconſiderable to him, compared to what they would be to a king of Great-Britain; and the like obſervation holds good in all the other departments of public expence in both kingdoms. The French themſelves, it is true, magnify the revenues of their crown ſometimes to twelve millions ſterling, or above; but their natural vanity gives them no right to any credit on ſuch a head; and though it is not at all impoſſible that the French king, in time of war, may raiſe ſuch a ſum upon his ſubjects, and diſcharge it by repaying them with one third of the debt, yet that is not to be accounted as a ſtated national revenue, and tends only to prove the miſery of the ſubject, and the injuſtice of the crown.

In France taxes are raiſed by the taille, or land-tax. The taillon, which the nobility are obliged to pay as well as the commons, is only another land-tax; by aids, which we call cuſtoms or merchandize; by gabels, which is a tax upon ſalt; by a capitation, or poll-tax; by the tenths of eſtates and employments; by the ſale of all offices of juſtice; by confiſcations and forfeitures; and by a tenth, or free gift of the clergy, excluſive of the annual ſum of twelve millions of livres, which that body has of late advanced to the king.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] In time of peace, the crown of France maintains about 200,000 men, but, as I have already hinted, at a very ſmall expence, the pay of the common men being little more than two pence half penny per day. In the time of war 400,000 have been brought to the field; but thoſe which are raiſed from the militia are very indifferent troops. In the reign of Lewis XIV. the French had at one time 100 ſhips of the line, which was almoſt equal to the marine force of all Europe beſides. The French have, however, at ſea been generally defeated by the Engliſh. The engagement at La Hogue, which happened in 1692, gave a blow to the French marine which it never has recovered. The preſent king, Lewis XV. has more than once made prodigious efforts towards re-eſtabliſhing his navy, but his officers and ſeamen are ſo much inferior to thoſe of England, that he ſeemed during the late war to have built ſhips of force for the ſervice of Great-Britain, ſo frequent were the captures made by the Engliſh. At preſent, viz. 1769, we are told, that including 50 gun ſhips, the French navy amounts to ſixty-four ſhips of the line, and twenty-five frigates, beſides ſmaller veſſels.

ROYAL TITLES, ARMS, NOBILITY, AND ORDERS.] The title aſſumed by the French king, is ſimply, King of France and Navarre; and by way of compliment he is called his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty. His arms are three fleurs-de-lis, or, in a field argent, ſupported by two angels in the habits of Levites, having each of them a banner in his hand, with the ſame arms. The motto is *Lilia non laborant neque nent.*

About the year 1349 Hubert the laſt count of Dauphiny, being accidentally the occaſion of his ſon's death, annexed that county to the crown of France, upon condition that the eldeſt ſon of France ſhould be, for the time to come, ſtiled Dauphine.

The French nobility are of four kinds; firſt, the princes of the blood; ſecondly, dukes and counts, peers of France; thirdly, the ordinary nobility; fourthly, the nobility lately made, or thoſe made in the preſent reign. The firſt prince of the blood, is the perſon who ſtands next to the crown after the king's ſons. The knights of the Holy Ghoſt are ranked among the higher nobility, as are the governors and lieutenants-general of provinces.

In France there are three orders; firſt, that of St. Michael, inſtituted in 1469, and though originally compoſed only of thirty-ſix knights, was afterwards enlarged to a hundred. A perſon

perſon muſt be a knight of this order before he can enter into that of (ſecondly) the Holy Ghoſt, which was founded in 1578, by Henry III. and is compoſed of a hundred perſons, excluſive of the ſovereign, and conferred only on princes of the blood, and perſons of the higheſt rank. Thirdly, the order of St. Lewis, which was inſtituted in the year 1693 by Lewis XIV. merely for military merit, and is worn by almoſt every officer, and even ſubalterns.

HISTORY.] The hiſtory of no country is better authenticated than that of France, and it is particularly intereſting to a Britiſh reader. This kingdom, which was by the Romans called Tranſalpine Gaul, or Gaul beyond the Alps, to diſtinguiſh it from Ciſalpine Gaul, on the Italian ſide of the Alps, was probably peopled from Italy, to which it lies contiguous. Like other European nations, it ſoon became a deſirable object to the ambitious Romans; and, after a brave reſiſtance, was annexed to their empire by the invincible arms of Julius Cæſar, about forty-eight years before Chriſt. Gaul continued in the poſſeſſion of the Romans till the downfal of that empire in the fifth century, when it became a prey to the Goths, the Burgundians, and the Franks, who ſubdued, but did not extirpate the ancient natives. The Franks themſelves, who gave it the name of France, or Frankenland, were a collection of ſeveral people inhabiting Germany, and particularly the Salii, who lived on the banks of the river Sale, and who cultivated the principles of juriſprudence better than their neighbours. Theſe Salii had a rule, which the reſt of the Franks are ſaid to have adopted, and has been by the modern Francs applied to the ſucceſſion of the throne, excluding all females from the inheritance of ſovereignty, and is well known by the name of the *Salic law*.

The Franks and Burgundians, after eſtabliſhing their power, and reducing the original natives to a ſtate of ſlavery, parcelled out the lands among their principal leaders; and ſucceeding kings found it neceſſary to confirm their privileges, allowing them to exerciſe ſovereign authority in their reſpective governments, until they at length aſſumed an independency, only acknowledging the king as their head. This gave riſe to thoſe numerous principalities that were formerly in France, and to the ſeveral parliaments; for every province became, in its policy and government, an epitome of the whole kingdom; and no laws were made, or taxes raiſed, without the concurrence of the grand council, conſiſting of the clergy and of the nobility.

Thus, as in other European nations, immediately after the diſſolution of the Roman empire, the firſt government in France

France seems to have been a kind of mixed monarchy, and the power of their kings extremely circumscribed and limited by the feudal barons.

The first Christian monarch of the Franks (according to Daniel, one of the best French historians) was Clovis, who began his reign anno 468, from which period the French history exhibits a series of great events; and we find them generally engaged in domestic broils or in foreign wars. The first race of their kings, prior to Charlemagne, found a cruel enemy in the Saracens, who then over-ran Europe, and retaliated the barbarities of the Goths and Vandals upon their posterity. In the year 800, Charlemagne, king of France, whom we have often mentioned as the glory of those dark ages, became master of Germany, Spain, and part of Italy, and was crowned king of the Romans by the pope; he divided his empire by will among his sons, which proved fatal to his family and posterity. Soon after this, the Normans, a fierce warlike people from Norway, Denmark, and other parts of Scandinavia, ravaged the kingdom of France; and about the year 900, obliged the French to yield up Normandy and Bretagne to Rollo, their leader, who married the king's daughter, and was persuaded to profess himself a Christian. This laid the foundation of the Norman power in France; which afterwards gave a king to England, in the person of William duke of Normandy, who subdued Harold, the last Saxon king, in the year 1066. This event proved unfortunate and ruinous to France, as it engaged that nation in almost perpetual wars with England, for whom they were not an equal match, notwithstanding their numbers, and the assistance they received from Scotland.

The rage of crusading, which broke out at this time, was of infinite service to the French crown in two respects; in the first place, it carried off hundreds of thousands of its turbulent subjects, and their leaders, who were almost independent of the king: in the next, the king succeeded to the estates of numbers of the nobility, who died abroad without heirs.

But passing over the dark ages of the crusades, their expeditions to the Holy Land, and wars with England, which have already been mentioned, we shall proceed to that period when the French began to extend their influence over Europe; and this brings us to the reign of Francis I. contemporary with Henry VIII. of England. This prince, though he was brave to excess in his own person, and had defeated the Swiss, whom till then were deemed invincible, was an unfortunate warrior. He was a candidate for the empire of Germany, but lost the imperial crown, Charles V. of the house of Austria,

and king of Spain, being chosen. Francis made some dazzling expeditions against Spain; but suffered his mother, of whom he was very fond, to abuse his power; by which he disobliged the constable of Bourbon, the greatest of his subjects, who joined in a confederacy against him with the emperor and Henry VIII. of England. In a capital expedition he undertook into Italy, he was taken prisoner at the battle of Pavia, and obliged to agree to dishonourable terms, which he never meant to perform, to regain his liberty. His non-performance of those conditions was afterwards the source of many wars between him and the emperor; and he died in 1547.

France, at the time of his death, notwithstanding the variety of disagreeable events during the late reign, was in a flourishing condition. Francis I. was succeeded by his son, Henry II. who upon the whole was an excellent and fortunate prince. He continued the war with the emperor of Germany to great advantage for his own dominions; and was so well served by the duke of Guise, that though he lost the battle of St. Quintin, against the Spaniards and the English, he retook Calais from the latter, who never since had any footing in France. He married his son, the Dauphin, to Mary queen of Scots, in hopes of uniting that kingdom to his crown; but in this scheme he, or rather his country, was unfortunate, as may be seen in the history of Scotland. He was killed in the year 1559, at an unhappy tilting-match, by the count of Montgomery.

He was succeeded by his son, Francis II. a weak, sickly, inactive prince, whose power was entirely engrossed by a prince of the house of Guise, uncle to his wife, the beautiful queen of Scotland. This engrossment of power encouraged the Bourbon, the Montmorenci, and other great families, to form a strong opposition against the government. Anthony, king of Navarre, was at the head of the Bourbon family; but the queen-mother, the famous Catharine of Medicis, being obliged to take part with the Guises, the confederacy, who had adopted the cause of Hugonotism, was broken in pieces, when the sudden death of Francis happened, in the year 1560.

This event took place while the prince of Condé, brother to the king of Navarre, was under sentence of death, for a conspiracy against the court, but the queen-mother saved him, to balance the interest of the Guises; so that the sole direction of affairs fell into her hands, during the minority of her second son, Charles IX. Her regency was a continued series of dissimulation, treachery, and murder. The duke of Guise, who was the scourge of the protestants, was treacherously murdered by one Poltrot, at the siege of Orleans; and the murderer was thought to have been instigated by the famous

Coligni, admiral of France, who was then at the head of the proteſtant party. Three civil wars ſucceeded each other. At laſt the court pretended to grant the Hugonots a very advantageous peace, and a match was concluded between Henry, the young king of Navarre and a proteſtant, and the French king's ſiſter. The heads of the proteſtants were invited to celebrate the nuptials at Paris, with the infernal view of butchering them all, if poſſible, in one night. This project proved but too ſucceſsful, though it was not completely executed, on St. Bartholomew's day, 1572. The king himſelf aſſiſted in the maſſacre, in which the admiral fell; and it is ſaid that about 30,000 proteſtants were murdered at Paris, and in other parts of France; and this brought on a fourth civil war. Though a freſh peace was concluded in 1573, with the proteſtants, yet a fifth civil war broke out the next year, when the bloody Charles IX. died without heirs.

His third brother, the duke of Anjou, had, ſome time before, been choſen king of Poland; and hearing of his brother's death, he, with ſome difficulty, eſcaped to France, where he took quiet poſſeſſion of that crown, by the name of Henry III.

Religion at that time ſupplied to the reformed nobility of France the feudal powers they had loſt. The heads of the proteſtants could raiſe armies of Hugonots. The governors of provinces behaved in them as if they had been independent of the crown; and the parties were ſo equally balanced, that the name of the king alone turned the ſcale. A holy league was formed for the defence of the catholic religion, at the head of which was the duke of Guiſe. The proteſtants, under the prince of Condé, and the duke of Alençon, the king's brother, called in the German princes to their aſſiſtance; and a ſixth civil war broke out in 1577, in which the king of Spain took the part of the league, in revenge of the duke of Alençon declaring himſelf lord of the Netherlands. This civil war was finiſhed within the year, by another ſham peace. The king, ever ſince his acceſſion to the crown, had plunged himſelf into a courſe of infamous debauchery and religious extravagance. He was entirely governed by his profligate favourites, but he poſſeſſed natural good ſenſe. He began to ſuſpect that the proſcriptions of the proteſtants, and the ſetting aſide from the ſucceſſion the king of Navarre, on account of his religion, which was aimed at by the holy league, was with a view to place the duke of Guiſe, the idol of the Roman-catholics, on the throne, to which that duke had ſome diſtant pretences. A ſeventh civil war broke out in 1579, and another in the year 1585, both of them to the diſadvantage of the proteſtants, through the abilities of the duke of Guiſe. The king thought him now ſo dangerous, that after inviting

him in a friendly manner to court, both he and his brother, the cardinal, were, by his majesty's orders, and, in a manner, under his eye, basely assassinated. The leaguers, upon this, declared that Henry had forfeited the crown, and was an enemy to religion. This obliged him to throw himself into the arms of the protestants; but while he was besieging Paris, where the leaguers had their greatest force, he was, in his turn, assassinated by one Clement, a young enthusiastic monk, in 1589. In Henry III. ended the line of Valois.

The readers of history are well acquainted with the difficulties, on account of his religion, which Henry IV. king of Navarre*, head of the house of Bourbon, and the next heir by the Salic law, had to encounter before he mounted the throne. The leaguers were headed by the duke of Main, brother to the late duke of Guise; and they drew from his cell the decrepit cardinal of Bourbon, uncle to the king of Navarre, and a Roman-catholic, to proclaim him king of France. Being strongly supported by the power of Spain and Rome, all the glorious actions performed by Henry, his courage and magnanimity, seemed only to make him more illustriously unfortunate; for he and his little court were sometimes without common necessaries. He was, however, personally beloved; and no objection lay against him but that of his religion. The leaguers, on the other hand, split among themselves; and the French nation, in general, being jealous of the Spaniards, who availed themselves of the public distractions, Henry, after experiencing a variety of good and bad fortune, came secretly to a resolution of declaring himself a Roman-catholic. This was a measure of necessity, as the king of Spain had offered his daughter Isabella Clara Eugenia to be queen of France, and would have married her to the young duke of Guise.

In 1593, Henry went publicly to mass, as a mark of his conversion. This complaisance wrought wonders in his favour; and having, with great difficulty, obtained absolution from the pope, all France submitted to his authority, and he had only the crown of Spain to contend with, which he did for several years with various fortunes. In 1598, he published the famous edict of Nantes, which secured to the protestants the free exercise of their religion; and next year the treaty of Vervins was concluded with Spain. Henry next chastised the duke of Savoy, who had taken advantage of the late troubles in his kingdom; and applied himself, with wonderful attention and success, (assisted in all his undertakings by his minister, the great Sully) to cultivate the happiness of his peo-

* A small kingdom lying upon the Pyrenean mountains, of which Henry's predecessors had been unjustly dispossessed of the greatest part, or Upper Navarre, by Ferdinand, king of Spain, about the year 1512.

ple, by encouraging manufactures, particularly that of silk, the benefit of which France feels at this day. Having re-established the tranquillity, and, in a great measure, secured the happiness of his people, he formed connections with the neighbouring powers for reducing the ambition of the house of Austria; for which purpose, it is said, he had formed great schemes, and collected a formidable army; others say (for his intention does not clearly appear) that he designed to have formed Christendom into a great republic, of which France was to be the head, to drive the Turks out of Europe; while others attribute his preparations to more ignoble motives, that of a criminal passion for a favourite princess, whose husband had carried her, for protection, into the Austrian dominions. Whatever may be in those conjectures, it is certain, that while he was making preparations for the coronation of his queen, Mary of Medicis, and was ready to enter upon his grand expedition, he was assassinated in his coach in the streets of Paris, by one Ravilliac, like Clement, another young enthusiast, in 1610.

Lewis XIII. son to Henry IV. deservedly named the Great, was but nine years of age at the time of his father's death. As he grew up, he discarded his mother and her favourites, and chose for his minister the famous cardinal Richelieu, who put a period, by his resolute and bloody measures, to the remaining liberties of France, and to the establishment of the protestants there, by taking from them Rochelle, though Charles I. of England, who had married the French king's sister, endeavoured, by his fleet and arms, to prevent it. This put an end to the civil wars on account of religion in France. Historians say, that in these wars above a million of men lost their lives; that 150,000,000 livres were spent in carrying them on; and that nine cities, four hundred villages, two thousand churches, two thousand monasteries, and ten thousand houses, were burnt, or otherwise destroyed during their continuance.

Richelieu, by a masterly train of politics, though himself was next to an enthusiast for popery, supported the protestants of Germany, and Gustavus Adolphus, against the house of Austria; and after quelling all the rebellions and conspiracies which had been formed against him in France, he died some months before Lewis XIII. who, in 1643, left his son, afterwards the famous Lewis XIV. to inherit his kingdom.

During that prince's nonage, the kingdom was torn in pieces under the administration of his mother, Anne of Austria, by the factions of the great, and the divisions between the court and parliament, for the most trifling causes, and upon

upon the moſt deſpicable principles. The prince of Condé flamed like a blazing ſtar, ſometimes a patriot, ſometimes a courtier, and ſometimes a rebel. He was oppoſed by the celebrated Turenne, who from a proteſtant had turned papiſt. The nation of France was involved at once in civil and domeſtic wars; but the queen-mother having made choice of Mazarine for her firſt miniſter, he found means to turn the arms, even of Cromwell, againſt the Spaniards, and to divide the domeſtic enemies of the court ſo effectually among themſelves, that when Lewis aſſumed the reins of government in his own hands, he found himſelf the moſt abſolute monarch that had ever ſat upon the throne of France. He had the good fortune, on the death of Mazarine, to put the domeſtic adminiſtration of his affairs into the hands of Colbert, whom I have already more than once mentioned, and who formed new ſyſtems for the glory, commerce, and manufactures of France, all which he carried to a ſurprizing height.

To write the hiſtory of this reign, would be to write that of all Europe. Ignorance and ambition were the only enemies of Lewis: through the former he was blind to every patriotic duty of a king, and promoted the intereſts of his ſubjects only that they might the better anſwer the purpoſes of his greatneſs: by the latter, he embroiled himſelf with all his neighbours, and wantonly rendered Germany a diſmal ſcene of devaſtation. I have often mentioned his impolitic revocation of the edict of Nantes, which obliged the French proteſtants to take ſhelter in England, Holland, and different parts of Germany, where they eſtabliſhed the ſilk manufactories, to the great prejudice of their own country. He was ſo blinded by flattery, that he arrogated to himſelf the divine honours paid to the pagan emperors of Rome. He made and broke treaties for his conveniency, and at laſt raiſed againſt himſelf a confederacy of almoſt all the other princes of Europe, at the head of which was king William III. of England. He was ſo well ſerved, that he made head for ſome years againſt this alliance; but having provoked the Engliſh by his repeated infidelities, their arms, duke of Marlborough, and thoſe of the Auſtrians, under prince Eugene, rendered the latter part of his life as miſerable as the beginning of it was ſplendid. His reign, from the year 1702 to 1711, was one continued ſeries of defeats and calamities; and he had the mortification of ſeeing thoſe places taken from him, which, in the former part of his reign, were acquired at the expence of many thouſand lives, Germans and Flemings. Juſt as he was reduced, old as he was, to the deſperate reſolution of collecting his people, and dying at their head, he was ſaved by the Engliſh withdrawing from their

allies, and concluding the peace of Utrecht, in 1713. He ſurvived his deliverance but two years, for he died on the firſt of September 1715, and was ſucceeded by his great grandſon, Lewis XV. the preſent king.

The partiality of Lewis XIV. to his natural children, might have involved France in a civil war, had not the regency been ſeized upon by the duke of Orleans, a man of ſenſe and ſpirit, and the next legitimate prince of the blood. We have already ſeen in what manner he diſcharged the national debt of France; but having embroiled himſelf with Spain, the king was declared major in 1722, and the regent on the ſecond of December that year was carried off by an apoplexy.

The reader is not to expect that I am to follow the affairs of France through all the inconſiſtent ſcenes of fighting and treating with the ſeveral powers of Europe, which are to be found in their reſpective hiſtories. Among the firſt acts of the king's government was his nominating his preceptor, afterwards cardinal Fleury, to be his firſt miniſter. Though his ſyſtem was entirely pacific, yet the ſituation of affairs in Europe upon the death of the king of Poland more than once embroiled him with the houſe of Auſtria. The intention of the French king was to replace his father-in-law Staniſlaus on the throne of Poland. In this he failed through the interpoſition of the Ruſſians and Auſtrians; but Staniſlaus enjoyed the title of king and the revenues of Lorrain during the remainder of his life. The connection between France and Spain forced the former to become principals in a war with Great-Britain, in the management of which the latter was ſo ill ſeconded by her allies, that it was finiſhed by the peace of Aix la Chapelle in 1748. As to the war, which had the American conteſt for its riſe, and was ended by the peace of Fontainbleau, in 1763, the chief events attending it have been already mentioned, and are too recent to be recapitulated here *.

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* Lewis XV. king of France and Navarre, was born in 1710, ſucceeded his great-grandfather, Lewis XIV. in 1715, crowned at Rheims in 1722, and married in 1725, to Maria Leſzinſki, only daughter to Staniſlaus, late king of Poland, duke of Lorrain, and died in 1768. Their iſſue are,

1. Maria Adelaide, Madame of France, ducheſs of Lorrain and Bar, born 1732.
2. Victoria Louiſa Maria Thereſa, born 1733.
3. Sophia Phillippina Elizabeth Juſtinia, born 1734.
4. Louiſa Maria, born 1737.

Iſſue of Lewis, late Dauphin of France, by the late Maria Joſepha of Saxony.

1. Lewis Auguſtus, Dauphin of France, born 1754, married 1770 to Maria Antonietta, ſiſter of the emperor of Germany, born 1755.
2. L. Stan. Xavier, count de Provence, born 1755.
3. Charles Philip, count D'Artois, born 1757.
4. Maria Adelaide Clotilda Xaveria, born 1759.
5. Elizabeth Philippa Maria Helena, born 1764.

NETHERLANDS.

THE ſeventeen provinces, which are known by the name of the Netherlands, were formerly part of Gallia Belgica, and afterwards of the circle of Belgium or Burgundy in the German empire.

EXTENT, SITUATION, AND BOUNDARIES OF THE SEVENTEEN PROVINCES.

Length 300, Breadth 200 } between { 49 and 54 north latitude. 2 and 7 eaſt longitude.

They are bounded by the German ſea on the north; by Germany eaſt; by Lorrain and France ſouth; and by the Britiſh channel weſt.

I ſhall, for the ſake of perſpicuity, and to avoid repetition, treat of the ſeventeen provinces under two great diviſions: Firſt, the northern, which contains the ſeven United Provinces, uſually known by the name of *Holland:* Secondly, the ſouthern, containing the Auſtrian and French Netherlands. The United Provinces are, properly ſpeaking, eight, viz. Holland, Overiſſel, Zealand, Frieſland, Utrecht, Groningen, Gelderland and Zutphen; but the two latter forming only one ſovereignty, they generally go by the name of the ſeven United Provinces.

SITUATION AND EXTENT OF THE UNITED PROVINCES.

Length 150, Breadth nearly the ſame. } between { 51 and 54 north latitude. 3 and 7 eaſt longitude.

The following is the moſt ſatisfactory account we meet with of their geographical diviſion, including the Texel, and other iſlands.

	Countries Names. United Provinces.	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
Calvinists.	Overiſſel	1,900	66	50	Deventer
	Holland	1,800	84	52	AMSTERDAM
	Gelderland	986	50	40	Nimeguen
	Frieſland	810	44	34	Leuwarden
	Zutphen	644	37	33	Zutphen
	Groningen	540	45	37	Groningen
	Utrecht	450	41	22	Utrecht
	Zealand	303	29	24	Middleburg
	Texel and other iſlands	113			
	Total —	7,546			

AIR, SOIL, AND SEASONS.] Theſe provinces lie oppoſite to England, at the diſtance of 90 miles upon the eaſt ſide of the Engliſh channel, and are only a narrow ſlip of low ſwampy land, lying between the mouths of ſeveral great rivers, and what the induſtry of the inhabitants have gained from the ſea by means of dykes, which they have raiſed and ſtill ſupport with incredible labour and expence. The air of the United Provinces is therefore foggy and groſs, until it is purified by the froſt in winter, when the eaſt wind uſually ſets in for about four months, and their harbours are frozen up. The moiſture of the air cauſes metals to ruſt, and wood to mould, more than in any other country, which is the reaſon of their perpetually rubbing and ſcouring, and the brightneſs and cleanlineſs in their houſes ſo much taken notice of. The ſoil is unfavourable to vegetation, but by the induſtry of the inhabitants in making canals, it is rendered fit for paſture, and in many places for tillage.

RIVERS AND HARBOURS.] The rivers are an important conſideration to the United Provinces; the chief of which are the Rhine, one of the largeſt and fineſt rivers in Europe; the Maeſe, the Scheld, and the Vecht. There are many ſmall rivers that join theſe, and a prodigious number of canals; but there are few good harbours in the United Provinces; the beſt are thoſe of Rotterdam, Helvoetſluys, and Fluſhing; that of Amſterdam, though one of the largeſt and ſafeſt in Europe, has a bar at the entrance of it, over which large veſſels cannot paſs without being lightened.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND.] The quantity of grain produced here, is not ſufficient for home conſumption; but by draining their bogs and marſhes, they have many excellent meadows, which fatten lean German and Daniſh cattle to a vaſt ſize; and they make prodigious quantities of butter and cheeſe. Their country produces turf, madder, tobacco, ſome fruit, and iron; but all the pit-coal, and timber uſed there, and indeed moſt of the comforts, and even the neceſſaries of life, are imported. They have a good breed of ſheep, whoſe wool is highly valued; and their horſes and horned cattle are of a larger ſize than in any other nation in Europe. It is ſaid there are ſome wild bears and wolves here. Storks build and hatch on their chimneys, but, being birds of paſſage, they leave the country about the middle of Auguſt, with their young, and return the February following. Their river fiſh is much the ſame as ours, but their ſea-fiſh is generally larger, owing perhaps to their fiſhing in deeper water. No herrings viſit their coaſts, and they have no oiſter-beds. Notwithſtanding all theſe incon-

inconveniencies, the induſtry of the Hollanders furniſhes as great a plenty of the neceſſaries and commodities of life, and upon as eaſy terms, as they are to be met with in any part of Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. The ſeven United Provinces are perhaps the beſt peopled of any ſpot of the ſame extent in the world. They contain, according to the beſt accounts, 113 cities and towns, 1400 villages, and about two millions of inhabitants; beſides the twenty-five towns, and the people in what is called the Lands of the Generality, or conquered countries and towns of other parts of the Netherlands. The manners, habits, and even the minds of the Dutch (for ſo the inhabitants of the United Provinces are called in general) ſeem to be formed by their ſituation, and to ariſe from their natural wants. Their country, which is preſerved by mounds and dykes, is a perpetual incentive to labour, and the artificial drains with which it is every where interſected, muſt be kept in perpetual repair. Even what may be called their natural commodities, their butter and cheeſe, are produced by a conſtant attention to laborious parts of life. Their principal food they earn out of the ſea by their herring fiſheries, for they diſpoſe of their moſt valuable fiſhes to the Engliſh, and other nations, for the ſake of gain. Their air and temperature of the climate incline them to phlegmatic, ſlow diſpoſitions, both of body and mind; and yet they are iraſcible, eſpecially if heated with liquor. Even their virtues are owing to their coldneſs with regard to every object that does not immediately concern their own intereſts; for in all other reſpects they are quiet neighbours and peaceable ſubjects. Their attention to the conſtitution and independency of their country is owing to the ſame principle, for they were never known to effect a change of government but when they thought themſelves on the brink of perdition.

The valour of the Dutch becomes warm and active when they find their intereſt at ſtake, witneſs their ſea wars with England, and France. Their boors, though ſlow of underſtanding, are manageable by fair means. Their ſeamen are a plain, blunt, but rough, ſurly, and ill-mannered ſort of people, and appear to be inſenſible of public ſpirit and affection for each other. Their tradeſmen are not to be truſted but when they know themſelves to be under the laſh of the law for impoſitions; and they ſeldom uſe more words than are neceſſary about their buſineſs. Smoaking tobacco is practiſed by old and young of both ſexes; and as they are generally plodding upon ways and means of getting money, no

people are ſo unſociable. Though a Dutchman, when drunk, is guilty of every ſpecies of brutality; and though they have been known to exerciſe the moſt dreadful inhumanities for intereſt abroad, where they thought themſelves free from diſcovery, yet they are in general quiet and inoffenſive in their own country, which exhibits but few inſtances of murder, rapine, or violence. As to the habitual tippling and drinking charged upon both ſexes, it is owing in a great meaſure to the nature of their ſoil and climate. In general, all appetites and paſſions ſeem to run lower and cooler here than in other countries, that of avarice excepted. Their tempers are not airy enough for joy, or any unuſual ſtrains of pleaſant humour, nor warm enough for love; ſo that the ſofter paſſions are no natives of this country; and love itſelf is little better than a mechanical affection, ariſing from intereſt, conveniency, or habit; it is talked of ſometimes among the young men, but as a thing they have heard of rather than felt, and as a diſcourſe that becomes them rather than affects them.

In whatever relates to the management of pecuniary affairs, the Dutch are certainly the moſt expert of any people; as to the knowledge of acquiring wealth, they unite the no leſs neceſſary ſcience of preſerving it. Every man ſpends leſs than his income, be that what it will; nor does it enter into the heads of this ſagacious people, that the common courſe of expence ſhould equal the revenue; and, when this happens, they think at leaſt that they have lived that year to no purpoſe; and the report of it diſcredits a man among them as much as any vicious or prodigal extravagance does in other countries. In all theſe particulars, the women exactly reſemble the men, eſpecially in their natural indifference as to the warmer paſſions. No country, therefore, can vie with theirs in the number of thoſe inhabitants, whoſe lot, if not riches, is at leaſt a comfortable ſufficiency; and where fewer failures or bankruptcies occur. Hence, in the midſt of a world of taxes and contributions, ſuch as no other country does experience, they flouriſh and grow rich. From this ſyſtematic ſpirit of regularity and moderation, joined to the moſt obſtinate perſeverance, they ſucceeded in the ſtupendous works of draining their country of thoſe immenſe deluges of water that had overflowed ſo large a part of it during many ages, while at the ſame time they brought under their ſubjection and command, the rivers and ſeas that ſurround them, by dykes of incredible thickneſs and ſtrength, and made them the principal bulwarks on which they rely for the protection and ſafety of their territories againſt the danger of an enemy. This they have done, by covering their frontiers and cities with innumerable

innumerable ſluices, by means of which, at the ſhorteſt notice, the moſt rapid inundations are let in, and they become in a few hours inacceſſible.

From that frugality and perſeverance which attends them at all times, and under the moſt intolerable difficulties, they were enabled not only to throw off the Spaniſh yoke, but to attack that powerful nation in the moſt tender parts, by ſeizing her rich galeons, and forming new eſtabliſhments in Africa, the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, at the expence of Spain, and thereby becoming, from a deſpicable province, a moſt powerful and formidable enemy.

Equally wonderful was the riſe of their military and marine eſtabliſhments, maintaining, during their celebrated contention with Lewis XIV. and Charles II. of England, not leſs than 150,000 men, and upwards of 80 ſhips of the line. The rich traders and mechanics however, begin now to approximate to the luxuries of Engliſh and French dreſſing and living; and their nobility and high magiſtrates, who have retired from trade, rival thoſe of any other part of Europe in their table, buildings, furniture, and equipages.

The diverſions of the Dutch differ not much from thoſe of the Engliſh, who ſeem to have borrowed from them the neatneſs of their drinking booths, ſkittle and other grounds, and ſmall pieces of water, which form the amuſements of the middling ranks, not to mention their hand organs, and other muſical inventions. They are the beſt ſkaters upon the ice in the world. It is amazing to ſee the crowds in a hard froſt upon the ice, and the great dexterity both of men and women, in darting along, or rather flying, with inconceivable velocity.

DRESS.] Their dreſs formerly was noted for the large breeches of the men; and the jerkins, plain mobbs, ſhort petticoats, and other oddities of the women; all which, added to the natural thickneſs and clumſineſs of their perſons, gave them a very groteſque appearance. Theſe dreſſes now prevail only among the lower ranks.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion here is the Preſbyterian or Calviniſm; none but Preſbyterians are admitted into any office or poſt in the government, excepting the army; yet all religions and ſects are tolerated, and have their reſpective meetings or aſſemblies for public worſhip, among which the papiſts and Jews are very numerous.

LANGUAGE.] The natural language of the United Provinces is Low Dutch, which is a corrupted dialect of the German; but the people of faſhion ſpeak Engliſh and French. Their Lord's Prayer runs thus: *Onſe Vader, die in de hemelin zyn uwen naam worde geheylight: uw'koningkryh ch kome: uwe wille geſchiede gelyck in den hemel zoo ook op den arden, ons dage-*

licks

licks broot geef ons heeden ene vergeeft onſe ſchulden gelyk ook wy vergeeven onſe ſchuldenaaren: ene en laat ons neit in verſoer kingemaer vertoſt on van den hooſen. Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Eraſmus and Grotius, who were both natives of this country, ſtand at the head almoſt of learning itſelf, as Boerhaave does of medicine. Haerlem diſputes the invention of printing with the Germans, and the moſt elegant edition of the claſſics came from the Dutch preſſes of Amſterdam, Rotterdam, Utrecht, Leyden, and other towns. The Dutch have excelled in controverſial divinity, which inſinuated itſelf ſo much into the ſtate, that it had almoſt proved fatal to the government, witneſs the ridiculous diſputes about Arminianiſm, free-will, predeſtination, and the like. Beſides Boerhaave they have produced excellent writers in all branches of medicine. Grævius and Burmann ſtand at the head of their numerous commentators upon the claſſics. Nothing is more common than their Latin poems and epigrams; and later times have produced a Van Haaren, who is poſſeſſed of ſome poetical abilities, and about the year 1747 publiſhed poems in favour of liberty, which were admired as rarities chiefly becauſe their author was a Dutchman. In the other departments of literature, the Dutch publications are mechanical, and ariſe chiefly from their employments in univerſities, church, or ſtate.

UNIVERSITIES.] Theſe are Leyden, Utrecht, Groningen, Harderwicke, and Franeker.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] The prodigious dykes, ſome of which are ſaid to be 17 ells in thickneſs, mounds, and canals, conſtructed by the Dutch, to preſerve their country from thoſe dreadful inundations by which it formerly ſuffered ſo much, are ſtupendous, and hardly to be equalled. A ſtone quarry near Maeſtricht, under a hill, is worked into a kind of ſubterraneous palace, ſupported by pillars twenty feet high. The ſtadthouſe of Amſterdam is perhaps the beſt building of that kind in the world: it ſtands upon thirteen thouſand large piles, driven into the ground; and the inſide is equally convenient and magnificent. Several muſeums, containing antiquities and curioſities, artificial and natural, are to be found in Holland and the other provinces, particularly in the famous univerſity of Leyden; ſuch as the effigies of a peaſant of Pruſſia, who ſwallowed a knife of ten inches length, and is ſaid to have lived eight years after the ſame was cut out of his ſtomach; but the truth of this ſeems to be doubtful. A ſhirt made of the entrails of a man. Two Egyptian mummies, being the bodies of two princes of great antiquity. All the muſcles and tendons of the

the human body curiosly set up, by professor Stalpert Vander-Weil.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE.

Amsterdam, which is built upon piles of wood, is thought to contain 241,000 people, and to be, next to London, the most commercial city in the world; in this respect, some have even given it the preference to London, though I cannot see with what propriety. Its conveniencies for commerce, and the grandeur of its public works, are almost beyond description. In this, and all other cities of the United Provinces, the beauty of the canals, and walks under trees planted on their borders, are admirable; but above all, we are struck with the neatness and cleanliness that is every where observed within doors. Rotterdam is next to Amsterdam for commerce and wealth: its inhabitants are computed at 56,000. The Hague, though but a village, is the seat of government in the United Provinces, and is celebrated for the magnificence and beauty of its buildings, the resort of foreign ambassadors and strangers of all distinctions who live in it, the abundance and cheapness of its provisions, and the politeness of its inhabitants, who are computed to be about 40,000: it is no place of trade, but it has been for many years noted as an emporium of pleasure and politics. Leyden and Utrecht are known in the annals of literature for the accommodations of the scholars who attend their universities, and the beauty and conveniences of their public schools. Saardam, though a wealthy trading place, is mentioned here as the workshop where Peter the Great, of Muscovy, in person, served his apprenticeship to ship-building, and laboured as a common handicraft. The upper part of Gelderland is subject to Prussia, and the capital city Gelder.

Holland, with all its commercial advantages, is not a desirable country to live in, especially to foreigners. Here are no mountains nor rising grounds, no plantations, purling streams, or cataracts. The whole face of the country, when viewed from a tower or steeple, has the appearance of a continued marsh or bog, drained at certain distances by innumerable ditches; and the canals, which serve as high roads, are frequently in a state of stagnation. The usual way of passing from town to town is by tract-scouts or covered boats, dragged along by horses at a slow trot. This method of travelling is cheap, but extremely dull, for there is a sameness through all the provinces. In Amsterdam, which is built upon piles, are no springs of fresh or wholesome water, which obliges the inhabitants to preserve the rain water in reservoirs.

COM-

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] An account of the Dutch commerce, would comprehend that of almoſt all Europe. There is ſcarcely a manufacture that they do not carry on, or a ſtate to which they do not trade. In this they are aſſiſted by the populouſneſs of their country, the cheapneſs of their labour, and, above all, by their water carriage, which, by means of their canals, gives them advantages beyond all other nations. The United Provinces are the grand magazine of Europe; and goods may be purchaſed here ſometimes cheaper than in the countries where they grow. Their Eaſt-India company have had the monopoly of the fine ſpices for more than a hundred years, and is the moſt opulent and powerful of any in the world. Their capital city in India is Batavia, which is ſaid to exceed in magnificence, opulence, and commerce, all the cities of Aſia. Here the viceroys appear in greater ſplendor than the ſtadtholder; and it is ſaid the Dutch ſubjects in Batavia ſcarcely acknowledge any dependance on the mother country. They have other ſettlements in India, but none more pleaſant, healthful, or uſeful, than that on the Cape of Good-Hope, the grand rendezvous of the ſhips of all nations, outward or homeward bound. When Lewis XIV. invaded Holland with an army of 80,000 men, the Dutch made ſome diſpoſitions to ſhip themſelves off to their ſettlements in India; ſo great was their averſion to the French government. Not to mention their herring and whale fiſheries, which they have carried off from the native proprietors, they excel at home in numberleſs branches of trade, ſuch as their pottery, tobacco-pipes, Delft-ware, finely refined ſalt; their oil-mills, ſtarch-manufactures; their improvements of the raw linen thread of Germany; their hemp, and fine paper manufactures; their fine linen and table damaſks; their ſaw-mills for timber, for ſhipping and houſes, in immenſe quantities; their great ſugar-baking; their vaſt woollen, cotton, and ſilk manufactures; wax-bleaching; leather-dreſſing; the great quantity of their coin and ſpecie, aſſiſted by their banks, moſt eſpecially by that of Amſterdam; their Eaſt-India trade; and their general induſtry and frugality. It is greatly doubted, however, whether their commerce, navigation, manufactures, and fiſheries, are in the ſame flouriſhing ſtate now as they were in the beginning of this century; and whether the riches and luxury of individuals have not damped the general induſtry of the inhabitants.

PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] Of theſe, the capital is the Eaſt-India, by which formerly the Dutch acquired immenſe wealth, having divided ſixty per cent. and ſometimes forty, about the year 1660; at preſent the dividends are much reduced;

reduced; but in a hundred and twenty-four years, the proprietors, on an average, one year with another, divided somewhat above twenty-four per cent. So late as the year 1760, they divided fifteen per cent. but the Dutch Weſt-India company, the ſame year, divided no more than two and a half per cent. The bank of Amſterdam is thought to be inexhauſtibly rich, and is under an excellent direction: it is ſaid, by Sir William Temple, to contain the greateſt treaſure, either real or imaginary, that is known any where in the world. What may ſeem a paradox is, that this bank is ſo far from paying any intereſt, that the money in it is worth ſomewhat more than current caſh is in common payments. Mr. Anderſon ſuppoſes, that the caſh, bullion, and pawned jewels in this bank, which is kept in the vaults of the ſtadthouſe, amounts to thirty-ſix (though others ſay only to thirty) millions ſterling.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] This is a very intricate article; for though the United Provinces ſubſiſt in a common confederacy, yet each province has an internal government or conſtitution independent of the others: this government is called the ſtates of that province, and the delegates from them form the ſtates general, in whom the ſovereignty of the whole confederacy is veſted; but though a province ſhould ſend two, or more delegates, yet ſuch province has no more than one voice in every reſolution; and before that reſolution can have the force of a law, it muſt be approved of by every province, and by every city and republic in that province. This formality, in times of great danger and emergency, has been ſet aſide. Every reſolution of the ſtates of a particular province muſt be carried unanimouſly.

The council of ſtate conſiſts likewiſe of deputies from the ſeveral provinces: but its conſtitution is different from that of the ſtates general: it is compoſed of twelve perſons, whereof Gelderland ſends two; Holland, three; Zealand, two; Utrecht, two; Frieſland, one; Overiſſel, one; and Groningen, one. Theſe deputies, however, do not vote provincially, but perſonally. Their buſineſs is to prepare eſtimates, and ways and means for raiſing the revenue, as well as other matters that are to be laid before the ſtates general. The ſtates of the provinces are ſtiled Noble and Mighty Lords; but thoſe of Holland, Noble and Moſt Mighty Lords; and the ſtates general, High and Mighty Lords, or the Lords the States General of the United Netherlands; or, their High Mightineſſes. Subordinate to theſe two bodies, is the chamber of accounts, which is likewiſe compoſed of provincial deputies,

who

who audit all public accounts. The admiralty forms a ſeparate board, and the executive part of it is committed to five colleges in the three maritime provinces of Holland, Zealand, and Frieſland. In Holland, the people have nothing to do either in chuſing their repreſentatives or their magiſtrates. In Amſterdam, which takes the lead in all public deliberations, the magiſtracy is lodged in thirty-ſix ſenators, who are choſen for life, and every vacancy among them is filled up by the ſurvivors. The ſame ſenate alſo elects the deputies to repreſent the cities in the province of Holland.

I have mentioned the above particulars, becauſe without a knowledge of them, it is impoſſible to underſtand the hiſtory of the United Provinces, from the death of King William to the year 1747, when the ſtadtholderſhip was made hereditary in the male and female repreſentatives of the family of Orange. This office in a manner ſuperſedes the conſtitution I have already deſcribed. The ſtadtholder is preſident of the ſtates of every province; and ſuch is his power and influence, that he can change the deputies, magiſtrates, and officers, in every province and city. By this he has the moulding of the aſſembly of the ſtates general, though he has no voice in it; in ſhort, though he has not the title, he has more real power and authority than many kings; for beſides the influence and revenue he derives from the ſtadtholderſhip, he has ſeveral principalities and large eſtates of his own. The preſent ſtadtholder is William V. prince of Orange and Naſſau. His titles are, Hereditary Stadtholder, Captain General, and Admiral of the Seven United Provinces. He is ſon of the late ſtadtholder, William-Charles, who married Anne, princeſs royal of Great Britain, and died in 1751. The preſent ſtadtholder was born in 1748, and in 1767 married the princeſs Frederica of Pruſſia.

With reſpect to the adminiſtration of juſtice in this country, every province has its tribunal, to which, except in criminal cauſes, appeal lies from the petty and county courts; and it is ſaid that juſtice is no where diſtributed with more impartiality.

REVENUES.] The government of the United Provinces proportion their taxes according to the abilities of each province or city. Thoſe taxes conſiſt of an almoſt general exciſe, a land-tax, poll-tax, and hearth-money; ſo that the public revenue amounts annually to about two millions and a half ſterling. The province of Holland pays above half of this revenue. The taxes in theſe provinces are ſo heavy, and ſo many, that it is not without reaſon that a certain author aſſerts, that the only thing that has eſcaped taxation there, is the air they

they breathe. For the encouragement of trade, the duties on goods and merchandize are ſaid to be exceeding low. Notwithſtanding the number and greatneſs of the taxes, every province is ſaid to labour under very heavy debts, eſpecially Holland; and the public credit is not in the moſt flouriſhing condition, witneſs the immenſe ſums in the Britiſh funds.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The number of land forces in the United Provinces is uncertain in time of peace, but they commonly amount to about 40,000; 25,000 of whom ſerve in garriſons; many of them are Scots and Swiſs; and, in time of war, they hire whole regiments of Germans. The chief command of the army is veſted in the ſtadtholder, under whom is the field marſhal general. No nation in Europe, England excepted, can fit out a more formidable fleet than the Dutch, having always vaſt quantities of timber prepared for building of ſhips; but the preſent marine force of the United Provinces is ſmall, compared to what it once was, when equal, if not ſuperior, to that of Great-Britain itſelf.

ARMS.] The enſigns armorial of the Seven United Provinces, or the States of Holland, are, or, a lion, gules, holding with one paw a cutlas, and with the other a bundle of ſeven arrows cloſe bound together, in alluſion to the ſeven confederate provinces, with the following motto, *Concordia res parvæ creſcunt.*

HISTORY.] See the Auſtrian Netherlands.

AUSTRIAN AND FRENCH NETHERLANDS.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Length 200, Breadth 200, between 49 and 52 north latitude, 2 and 7 eaſt longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the United Provinces on the north; by Germany, eaſt; by Lorrain, Champaign, and Picardy, in France, ſouth; and by another part of Picardy, and the Engliſh ſea, weſt.

As this country belongs to three different powers, the Auſtrians, French, and Dutch, we ſhall be more particular in diſtinguiſhing the provinces and towns belonging to each ſtate.

1. Province of BRABANT.

Subdiviſions.	Chief towns.	
1. Dutch Brabant.	Boiſleduc, Breda, Bergen-op-Zoom	N.
	Maeſtricht	S. E.
	Grave	N. E.
	Lillo, Steenbergen	N. W.

Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
2. Austrian Brabant —	Brussels, E. lon. 4 deg. 6 min. N. lat. 50-50.
	Louvain, Vilvorden, Landen — in the middle.

2. ANTWERP; and, 3. MALINES, are provinces independant of Brabant, though surrounded by it, and subject to the house of Austria.

4. Province of LIMBURG, S. E.

Chief towns —	Limburg, E. lon. 6-5. N. lat. 50-37. subject to Austria.
	Dalem, Fauquemont, or Valkenburg — subject to the Dutch.

5. Province of LUXEMBURG.

Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
Austrian Luxemburg —	Luxemburg, E. lon. 6-8. N. lat. 49-45.
French Luxemburg —	Thionville, Montmedy — S. E.

6. Province of NAMUR, in the middle, subject to Austria.

Chief towns —	Namur, on the Sambre and Maese, E. lon. 4-50. N. lat. 50-30.
	Charleroy on the Sambre.

7. Province of HAINAULT.

Subdivisions.	Chief towns.	
Austrian Hainault —	Mons, E. lon. 3-33. N. lat. 50-30.	in the middle
	Aeth, Enguien	
French Hainault —	Valenciennes, Bouchain, Conde, Landrecy	S. W.

8. Province of CAMBRESIS.

Subject to France —	Cambray, E. of Arras, E. lon. 3-15. N. lat. 50-15.
	Crevecour, S. of Cambray.

9. Province of ARTOIS.

Subject to France —	Arras, S. W. on the Scarpe, E. lon. 2-5. N. lat. 50-20.
	St. Omer, E. of Boulogne
	Aire, S. of St. Omer
	St. Venant, E. of Aire
	Bethune, S. E. of Aire
	Terouen, S. of St. Omer.

10. Province of FLANDERS.

Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
Dutch Flanders	Sluys, N. Axel, N. Hulst, N. Sas van Ghent, N.
Austrian Flanders	Ghent, on the Scheldt, E. lon. 3-36. N. lat. 51. Bruges, Ostend, Newport — N. W. near the sea. Oudenard on the Scheld. Courtray, Dixmude — on the Lis. Ypres, N. of Lisle Tournay on the Scheld Menin on the Lis.
French Flanders	Lisle, W. of Tournay Dunkirk, on the coast E. of Calais Douay, W. of Arras Mardike, W. of Dunkirk St. Amand, N. of Valenciennes Gravelin, E. of Calais.

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air of Brabant, and upon the coast of Flanders, is bad; that in the interior parts is more healthful, and the seasons more settled, both in winter and summer, than they are in England. The soil and its produce are rich, especially in corn and fruits. They have abundance of pasture; and Flanders itself has been reckoned the granary of France and Germany, and sometimes of England. The most barren parts for corn, rear far more profitable crops of flax, which is here cultivated to great perfection. Upon the whole, the Austrian Netherlands, by the culture, commerce, and industry of the inhabitants, was formerly the richest and most beautiful spot in Europe, whether we regard the variety of its manufactures, the magnificence and riches of its cities, the amenity of its roads and villages, and the fertility of its land. If it has fallen off in later times, it is owing partly to the neglect of its government, but chiefly to its vicinity to England and Holland; but it is still a most desirable and pleasant country. There are few or no mountains in the Netherlands: Flanders is a flat country, scarcely a single hill in it. Brabant, and the rest of the provinces, consist of little hills and vallies, woods, inclosed grounds, and champaign fields.

RIVERS AND CANALS.] The chief rivers are the Maese, Sambre, Demer, Dyle, Nethe, Geet, Sanne, Ruppel, Scheld, Lis, Scarpe, Deule, and Dender. The principal canals are those of Brussels, Ghent, and Ostend.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Mines of iron, copper, lead, and brimstone, are found in Luxemburg, Limburg, and Liege, as are some marble quarries.

INHABITANTS, POPULATION, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] The Flemings (for so the inhabitants of Flanders and the Austrian Low Countries are generally called) are thought to be a heavy, blunt, honest people; but their manners are somewhat indelicate. Formerly they were known to fight desperately in defence of their country; at present they make no great figure. The Austrian Netherlands are extremely populous, but authors differ as to their numbers. Perhaps we may fix them at a medium at a million and a half. They are ignorant, and fond of religious exhibitions and pageants. Their other diversions are the same with those of the peasants of the neighbouring countries.

DRESS AND LANGUAGE.] The inhabitants of French Flanders are mere Frenchmen and women in both these particulars. The Flemings on the frontiers of Holland dress like the Dutch boors, and their language is the same; but the better sort of people speak French, and dress in the same taste.

RELIGION.] The established religion here is the Roman-catholic; but protestants, and other sects, are not molested.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] The archbishoprics are Cambray, Maline or Mecklin; the bishoprics, Ghent, Bruges, Antwerp, Arras, Ypres, Tournay, St. Omer, Namur, and Ruremonde.

LEARNING, LEARNED MEN, AND ARTISTS.] The society of Jesus has produced the most learned men in the Austrian Low countries, in which they had many comfortable settlements, which are now upon the decline. Works of theology, and the civil and canon law, Latin poems and plays, are their chief productions. Strada is an elegant historian and poet. The Flemish painters and sculptors have great merit, and form a school by themselves. The works of Rubens and Vandyke cannot be sufficiently admired. Flamingo, or the Flemings models for heads, particularly those of children, have never yet been equalled; and the Flemings formerly engrossed tapestry-weaving to themselves.

UNIVERSITIES.] Louvain, Douay, and St. Omer.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Some Roman monuments of temples

and other buildings are to be found in thoſe provinces. Many curious bells, churches, and the like, ancient and modern, are alſo found here; and the magnificent old edifices of every kind, ſeen through all their cities, give evidences of their former grandeur.

CITIES.] This article has employed ſeveral large volumes publiſhed by different authors, but in times when the Auſtrian Netherlands were far more flouriſhing than now. The walls of Ghent, formerly the capital of Flanders, and celebrated for its linen and woollen manufactures, contain the circuit of ten miles, but now unoccupied, and great part of it in a manner a void. Bruges, formerly ſo noted for its trade and manufactures, but above all for its fine canals, is now dwindled to an inconſiderable place. Oſtend is now no more than a convenient harbour for traders; and Ypres, a ſtrong garriſon town. The ſame may be ſaid of Charleroy and Namur, which lie in the Auſtrian Hainault.

Louvain, the capital of the Auſtrian Brabant, inſtead of its flouriſhing manufactories and places of trade, now contains pretty gardens, walks, and arbours. Bruſſels retains ſomewhat of its antient manufactories; and being the reſidence of the governor or viceroy of the Auſtrian Netherlands, it is a populous, lively place. Antwerp, once the emporium of the European continent, is now reduced to be a tapeſtry and thread lace-ſhop, with the houſes of ſome bankers, jewellers, and painters adjoining. One of the firſt exploits of the Dutch, ſoon after they threw off the Spaniſh yoke, was to ruin at once the commerce of Antwerp, by ſinking veſſels, loaded with ſtone, in the mouth of the Scheld; thus ſhutting up for ever, the entrance of that river to ſhips of burden. This was the more cruel as the people of Antwerp had been their friends and fellow ſufferers in the cauſe of liberty.

It may be obſerved here, that every gentleman's houſe is a caſtle or *chateau*; and that there are more ſtrong towns in the Netherlands than in all the reſt of Europe; but ſince the decline of their trade, by the riſe of the Engliſh and Dutch, theſe towns are conſiderably diminiſhed in ſize, and whole ſtreets, particularly in Antwerp, are in appearance uninhabited. In the Netherlands, proviſions are extremely good and cheap. A ſtranger may dine in Bruſſels on ſeven or eight diſhes of meat for leſs than a ſhilling Engliſh. Travelling is ſafe, reaſonable and delightful in this luxurious country. The roads are generally a broad cauſeway, and run for ſome miles in a ſtraight line, till they terminate with the view of ſome noble buildings.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The chief manufactures of the French and Auſtrian Netherlands, are their beautiful linens and laces; in which, notwithſtanding the boaſted improvements of their neighbours, they are yet unrivalled, particularly in that ſpecies called cambricks, from Cambray, the chief place of its manufacture. Theſe manufactures form the principal article of their commerce.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Auſtrian Netherlands are ſtill conſidered as a circle of the empire, of which the archducal houſe, as being ſovereign of the whole, is the ſole director and ſummoning prince. This circle contributes its ſhare to the impoſts of the empire, and ſends an envoy to the diet, but is not ſubject to the judicatories of the empire. It is under a governor-general, appointed by the court of Vienna, who, at preſent, is his ſerene highneſs prince Charles of Lorrain, brother to the late, and uncle to the preſent emperor. The face of an aſſembly, or parliament, for each province, is ſtill kept up, and conſiſts of the clergy, nobility, and deputies of towns, who meet at Bruſſels. Each province claims particular privileges, but they are of very little effect; and the governor ſeldom or never finds any reſiſtance to the will of his court. Every province has a particular governor, ſubject to the regent; and cauſes are here decided according to the civil and canon law.

REVENUES.] Theſe riſe from the demeſne lands and cuſtoms; but ſo much is the trade of the Auſtrian Flanders now reduced, that they are ſaid not to defray the expence of their government. The French Netherlands bring in a conſiderable revenue to the crown.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The troops maintained here by the empreſs-queen are chiefly employed in the frontier garriſons. Though by the barrier treaty, the Auſtrians were obliged to maintain three-fifths of thoſe garriſons, and the Dutch two, yet both of them are miſerably deficient in their quotas, the whole requiring at leaſt 30,000 men, and in time of war above 10,000 more.

ARMS.] The arms of Flanders are, or, a lion ſable, and languid gules.

HISTORY.] The ſeventeen provinces, and that part of Germany which lies weſt of the Rhine, was called Belgicæ Galliæ by the Romans. Upon the decline of that empire, the Goths, and other northern people, poſſeſſed themſelves of theſe provinces firſt, as they paſſed through them in their way to France, and other parts of the Roman empire; and after being erected into ſmall governments, the heads of which were deſpotic within their own dominions, they were ſwallowed up

by the houſe of Burgundy. The emperor Charles V. the heir of that family, ranked them as part of the empire, under the title of the Circle of Burgundy. The tyranny of his ſon Philip, who ſucceeded to the throne of Spain, made the inhabitants attempt to throw off his yoke, which occaſioned a general inſurrection. The counts Hoorn, Egmont, and the prince of Orange, appearing at the head of it, and Luther's reformation gaining ground about the ſame time in the Netherlands, his diſciples joined the malecontents. Whereupon king Philip introduced a kind of inquiſition, in order to ſuppreſs them, and many thouſands were put to death by that court, beſides thoſe that periſhed by the ſword. Count Hoorn and count Egmont were taken and beheaded; but the prince of Orange, whom they elected to be their ſtadtholder, retiring into Holland, that and the adjacent provinces entered into a treaty for their mutual defence, at Utrecht, in the year 1579. And though theſe revolters at firſt were ſo deſpicable as to be termed Beggars by their tyrants, their perſeverance and courage was ſuch, under the prince of Orange, and the aſſiſtance afforded them by queen Elizabeth, both in troops and money, that they forced the crown of Spain at laſt to declare them a free people, about the year 1609; and afterwards they were acknowledged by all Europe to be an independant ſtate, under the title of *The United Provinces*. When the houſe of Auſtria, which for ſome ages ruled over Germany, Spain, and part of Italy, with which they afterwards continued to carry on bloody wars, was become no longer formidable, and when the public jealouſy was directed againſt that of Bourbon, which was favoured by the government of Holland, who had diſpoſſeſſed the prince of Orange of the ſtadtholderſhip, the ſpirit of the people was ſuch, that they revived it in the perſon of the prince, who was afterwards William III. king of Great-Britain; and during his reign, and that of queen Anne, they were principals in the grand confederacy againſt Lewis XIV. king of France. By their ſea wars with England, under Cromwell, and in the reign of Charles II. they acquired the reputation of a formidable naval power; but, as I have already mentioned, their military virtue is on the decline. The Spaniards remained poſſeſſed of the other ten provinces, or, as they are termed, the Low Countries, until the duke of Marlborough, general of the allies, gained the memorable victory of Ramilies, in the year 1706. After which, Bruſſels, the capital, and great part of theſe provinces, acknowledged Charles VI. afterwards emperor of Germany, their ſovereign; and his daughter, the empreſs queen, remained poſſeſſed of them until the war of 1741, when the French made an entire conqueſt of them,

except part of the province of Luxemburg; and the places retained by the French, by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in the year 1748, may be seen in the preceding general table of divisions.

GERMANY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	600	between	5 and 19 east longitude.
Breadth	500		45 and 55 north latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] THE empire of Germany, properly so called, is bounded by the German ocean, Denmark, and the Baltic, on the north; by Poland and Hungary, including Bohemia, on the east; by Switzerland and the Alps, which divides it from Italy, on the south; and by the dominions of France and the Low Countries, on the west, from which it is separated by the Rhine, Moselle, and the Maes.

GRAND DIVISIONS.] The divisions of Germany, as laid down even by modern writers, are various and uncertain. I shall therefore stick to those that are most generally received. Germany formerly was divided into the Upper, or southern, and the Lower, or northern. The emperor Maximilian, predecessor and grandfather to the emperor Charles V. divided it into ten great circles; and the division was confirmed in the diet of Nuremberg, in 1552; but the circle of Burgundy, or the seventeen provinces of the Low Countries, being now detached from the empire, we are to confine ourselves to nine of those divisions, as they now subsist.

Whereof three are in the north, three in the middle, and three in the south.

The northern circles	Upper Saxony, Lower Saxony, Westphalia
The circles in the middle	Upper Rhine, Lower Rhine, Franconia
The southern circles	Austria, Bavaria, Swabia.

1. UPPER SAXONY CIRCLE.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
Pomerania, in the North	Prussian Pomerania, N. E.	Stetin, E. lon. 14-50. N. lat. 53-30.
	Swedish Pomerania, N. W.	Stralsund

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
Brandenburg in the middle, subject to its own elector the king of Prussia.	Altmark, west; Middlemark; Newark, east	Stendel; Berlin, Potsdam; Francfort, Custrin.
Saxony, Proper, in the south, subject to its own elector.	Duchy of Saxony, N.; Lusatia, marq. east.; Misnia, marq. south	Wittenburgh; Bantzen, Gorlits; Dresden, E. lon. 13-36. N. Lat. 51.; Missein.
Thuringia, langr. west		Erfurtt, subject to the elector of Mentz.
The dutchies of	Saxe Meiningen; Saxe Zeits; Saxe Altenburg, S. E.; Saxe Weimer, west; Saxe Gotha, west; Saxe Eisnach, S. W.; Saxe Saalfield — Subject to their own dukes.	Meiningen; Zeits; Altenburg; Weimer; Gotha; Eisnach; Saalfield.
The counties of	Schwartsburg, W.; Belchingen, N.; Mansfield, N. — Subject to their respective counts	Schwartsburg; Belchingen; Mansfield.
The dutchies of	Hall, middle, subject to Prussia; Saxe Naumberg, subject to its own duke	Hall; Naumburg.
The counties of	Stolberg, north-west; Hohenstein, west	Stolberg; Northhausen
Principality of	Anhalt, north	Dessau, Zerbst; Bernberg, Kothen.
Bishopric of —	Saxe Hall, west	Hall
	Voigtland, south, subject to the elector of Saxony	Plowen.
Dutchy of —	Merseberg, middle, subject to the elector of Saxony	Merseberg.

2. Lower SAXONY Circle.

Holstein D. north of the Elbe	Holstein Proper, N.	Partly sub. to Denmark, and partly to the duke of Holstein Gottorp.	Keil, subject to Holstein Gottorp
	Ditmarsh, west		Meldorp, subject to Denmark.
	Stormaria, south		Glucstat, subject to Denmark.
	Hamburgh, a sovereign state		Hamburg, E. L. 10-35. N. L. 54. an imperial city
	Wagerland, east		Lubec, an imperial city.
Lawenburg Dutchy, north of the Elbe, subject to Hanover			Lawenburg.
Subject to the duke of Brunswick Wolfembuttle.	D. Brunswic Proper; D. Wolfembuttle — middle		Brunswic, E.L. 10-30. N. Lat. 52-30. Wolfembuttle
	C. Rheinstein, south		Rheinstein
	C. Blachenberg —		Blackenburg

Subject

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
Subject to the elector of Hanover, king of Great Britain.	D. Calenburg —	Hanover
	D. Grubbenhagen —	Grubbenhagen
	Gottengen —	Gottengen
Lunenburg D. sub. to Hanover.	D. of Lunenburg Proper	Lunenburg
	D. Zell —	Zell, E. lon. 10. N. lat. 32-52.
Bremen D. and Verden D. sub. to Hanover, north ——		Bremen, E. lon. 9. N. lat. 53-30, an imperial city.
		Verden.
Mecklenburg Duchy —	D. Swerin, north, subject to its duke ——	Swerin, E. lon. 11-30. N. lat. 54.
	D. Gustrow, north, subject to its duke ——	Gustrow.
Hildesheim bishopric, in the middle, subject to its bishop —— ——		Hildesheim, an imperial city.
Magdeburg duchy, south-east, subject to the king of Prussia —— ——		Magdeburg.
Halberstat duchy, subject to Prussia, south-east —— ——		Halberstat.

3. WESTPHALIA Circle.

North Division	Embden, C. or East Friesland, subject to the king of Prussia		Embden, an imperial city
	Oldenburg, C.	sub. to the king of Denmark	Oldenburgh
	Delmonhurst		Delmonhurst
	Hoye	subject to Hanover	Hoye
	Diepholt		Diepholt.
Western Division	Munster B. subject to its bishop		Munster, E. lon. 7-10. N. lat. 52.
	Paderborn B. subject to its bishop		Paderborn
	Osnaburg B. subject to its bishop		Osnaburg
	Lippe, C. sub. to its own count		Lippe, Pyrmont
	Minden D.	sub. to Prussia	Minden
	Ravensburg C.		Ravensburg
	Westphalia D. sub. to the elector of Cologn ——		Arensburg
	Tecklenburg C.	subject to their respective counts	Tecklenburg
	Ritberg C.		Ritberg
	Schawenburg C.		Schawenburg
Middle Division	Cleves D. subject to the king of Prussia —— ——		Cleef, E. lon. 5-36. N. lat. 51-40.
	Berg. D.	subject to the elector Palatine	Dusseldorf
	Juliers D.		Juliers Aix
	Mark C. subject to Prussia		Ham
	Liege B. subject to its own bishop		Liege, E. lon. 5-36. N. lat. 50-40.
			Huy
	Bentheim C. subject to Hanover		Bentheim
	Steinfort C. subject to its count		Steinfort.

4. Upper RHINE Circle.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
Hesse	Hesse Cassel, landg. N. —	Cassel, E. lon. 9-20. N. lat. 51-20.
	Hesse Marpurg, landg. N. —	Marpurg
	Hesse Darmstadt, landg. —	Darmstadt.

Each of the above subdivisions are subject to their respective landgraves.

	Hesse Hoberg — — —	Homberg
	Hesse Rhinefield — — —	Rhinefield
	Hesse Wanfried — — —	Wonfield
Counties in the Wetteraw south.	Nassau Dillenburg —	Dillenburg
	Nassau Diets —	Diets
	Nassau Hadamar —	Hadamar
	Nassau Kerberg —	Kerberg
	Nassau Siegen —	Siegen
	Nassau Idstein —	Idstein
	Nassau Weilburg —	Weilburg
	Nassau Wisbaden —	Wisbaden
	Nassau Bielsteid —	Bielsteid
	Nassau Otweiler —	Otweiler
	Nassau Usingen —	Usingen

Each county subject to its own count of the house of Nassau.

Territory of Frankfort, a sovereign state —	Frankfort on the Maine, E. lon. 8-30. N. lat. 50-10. an imperial city.
County of Erpach, subject to its own count —	Erpach east.
Bishopric of Spire, a sovereign state —	Spire on the Rhine, an imperial city
Duchy of Zwebruggen, or Deuxponts, subject to the duke of Deuxponts — — —	Deuxponts in the Palat.
County of Catzenelbogen, subject to Hesse Cassel — — —	Catzenelbogen on the Lhon.

Counties of	Waldec, subject to its own count	Waldec
	Solms, subject to its own count	Solms
	Hanau, subject to Hesse Cassel —	Hanau
	Eysenberg, sub. to its own count	Eysenberg
	Soyn — — —	Sayn
	Wied — — —	Wied
	Wetgenstein — —	Witgenstein
	Haizfield — —	Hatzfield
	Westerberg — —	Westerberg.
Abby of Fuld, subject to its abbot —		Fuld.
Hirchfield — subject to Hesse Cassel —		Hirchfield.

5. Lower RHINE Circle.

Divisions.	Chief towns.
Palatinate of the Rhine, on both sides that river, subject to the elector Palatine	Heidelburg on the Neckar, E. lon. 8-40. N. lat. 49-20.
	Phillisburg, Manheim, and Frankendal on the Rhine.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
Archbishoprics and Electorates of — Cologn	Subject to their respective electors.	Cologne, on the Rhone, E. lon. 6-40. N. lat. 50-50.
		Bonn, on the Rhine.
Mentz		Mentz, on the Rhine, Aschaffenburg, on the Maine.
Triers		Triers, on the Moselle.
Bishopric of Worms, a sovereign state —		Worms, on the Rhine, an imperial city.
Duchy of Simmeren, sub. to its own duke —		Simmeren.
Counties of — Rhinegravestein		Rhinegravestein
Meurs, subj. to Prussia		Meurs
Veldenti, subj. to the elector Palatine		Veldents
Spanheim		Creutznach
Leymingen		Leymingen.

6. FRANCONIA Circle.

Divisions.		Chief towns.
Bishoprics of — Wurtsburg, W.	Subject to their respective bishops.	Wurtsburg
Bemberg, N.		Bemberg
Aichstat, S.		Aichstat.
Marquisates of — Cullenback, north-east	Subject to their respective margraves	Cullenback
Onspach, S.		Onspach.
Subdivisions.		**Chief towns.**
Principality of Henneburgh, N.		Henneburgh
Duchy of Coberg, N. subj. to its duke		Coberg
Duchy of Hilburghausen, subj. to its duke		Hilburghausen
Burgravate of Nuremburg, S. E. an independent state		Nuremburg, an imperial city.
Territory of the great master of the Teutonic order, Mergentheim, S. W.		Mergentheim.
Counties of — Reineck, W.		Reineck
Bareith, E. sub. to its own margrave		Bareith
Papenheim, S. sub. to its own count		Papenheim
Wertheim, W.		Wertheim
Cassel, middle		Cassel
Schwartzenburgh, subject to its own count		Schwartzenburg middle
Holach, S. W.		Holach.

7. AUSTRIA Circle.

The whole circle belongs to the empress queen of Hungary.

Division.	Chief town.
Archduchy of Austria Proper —	Vienna, E. lon. 16-20. N. lat. 48-20. Lints Ens, west.

Division.		Chief towns.
Duchies of	Stira and Cilley, C.	Gratz, Cilley, S. E.
	Carinthia — —	Glagenfurt, Lavemund, S. E.
	Carniola — —	Laubach, Zerknits, Trieſte, St. Veits, S. E.
	Goritia — —	Gorits, S. E.
County of Tyrol — — —		Inſpruck
Biſhoprics of	Brixen — —	Brixen } S. W. on the confines of Italy and Switzerland.
	Trent — —	Trent

8. BAVARIA Circle.

Subdiviſions.		Chief towns.
Duchy of Bavaria Proper, on the Danube	Subject to the elector of Bavaria	Munich, E. lon. 11-32. N. lat. 48-5. Landſhut, Ingoldſtat, N. W. Donawert, [Ratiſbon] N. an imperial city.
Palatinate of Bavaria		Amberg, [Sultſbach] N. of the Danube, ſubject to the elector Palatine.
Freiſſingen, ſubject to its biſhop ——		Freiſſingen
Biſhopric of Paſſau, ſubject to its own biſhop —— ——		Paſſau, E. on the Danube.
Duchy of Neuberg, ſubj. to the elector Palatine —— ——		Neuberg, W. on the Danube.
Archbiſhop of Saltſburg, ſubject to its own archbiſhop —— ——		Saltſburg, S. E. Hallen.

9. SWABIA Circle.

Subdiviſions.		Chief towns.
Duchy of Wurtemburg, ſub. to the duke of Wurtemburg	Stutgard, E. lon. 9. N. lat. 48-40. Tubingen, Hailbron	On, or near the Neckar.
Marquiſates of	Baden Baden, BadenDourlach — ſubject to their own reſpective margraves.	BadenDourlach, Baden Weiller — On, or near the Rhine.
Biſhopric of Augſburg, ſubject to its own biſhop —— ——		Augſburg, an imperial city, Hockſtet, Blenheim, on or near the Danube.
Territory of Ulm, a ſovereign ſtate		Ulm, on the Danube, an imperial city.
Biſhopric of Conſtance, ſubject to its own biſhop under the houſe of Auſtria		Conſtance, on the lake of Conſtance.
Principalities of	Mindelheim, Furſtemburg, Hohenzollern — Subject to their reſpective princes.	Mindelheim, S. of Augſburg. Furſtenburg, S. Hohenzollern, S.
Counties of	Oeting — —	Oeting, eaſt
	Koningſeck — —	Koneckſeck, ſouth-eaſt
	Hohenrichburg —	Gemund, north

Baronies of	Waldburg — —	Waldburg, south-east
	Limpurg — —	Limpurg, north.
Abbies of	Kempten — —	Kempten, on the Iller
	Buchaw — —	Buchaw, S. of the Danube
	Lindaw — —	Lindaw, on the lake of Constance, imperial cities.
Imperial cities, or sovereign states —		Nordlingen, north of the Danube Memminghen, east Rotwell, on the Neckar, and many more.
Subject to the house of Austria	Black forest, N. W. Rhinefield C.	Rhinefield and Lauffenburg
	Marquisate of Burgaw	Burgaw, east.
	Territory of Brisgow, on the Rhine —	Friburgh and Brisac.

NAME.] Great part of modern Germany lay in antient Gaul, as I have already mentioned; and the word Germany is of itself but modern. Many fanciful derivations have been given of the word; the most probable is, that it is compounded of *Ger*, or *Gar*, and *Man*; which, in the ancient Celtic, signifies a warlike man. The Germans, however, went by various other names, such as Allemanni, Teutones; which last is said to have been their most ancient designation; and the Germans themselves call their country Teuchland.

CLIMATE, SEASONS, AND SOIL.] The climate of Germany, as in all large tracts of country, differs greatly, not only on account of the situation, north, east, south, and west, but according to the improvement of the soil, which has a vast effect upon the climate. The most mild and settled weather is found in the middle of the country, at an equal distance from the sea and the Alps. In the north it is sharp; towards the south it is more temperate.

The soil of Germany is not improved to the full by culture, and therefore in many places it is bare and sterile, though in others it is surprizingly fruitful. Agriculture, however, is daily improving, which must necessarily change the most barren parts of Germany greatly to their advantage. The reasons vary as much as the soil. In the south and western parts they are more regular than those that lie near the sea, or that abound with lakes and rivers. The north wind and the eastern blasts are unfavourable to vegetation. Upon the whole, there is no great difference between the seasons of Germany and those of Great-Britain.

MOUNTAINS.] The chief mountains of Germany are the Alps, which divide it from Italy, and those which separate Saxony,

Saxony, Bavaria, and Moravia from Bohemia. Many other large tracts of mountains, however, are found in different parts of the empire.

FORESTS.] The vaſt paſſion which the Germans have for hunting the wild boar, is the reaſon why perhaps there are more woods and chaſes yet ſtanding in Germany than in moſt other countries. The Heraynian foreſt, which in Cæſar's time was nine days journey in length, and ſix in breadth, is now cut down in many places, or parcelled out into woods, which go by particular names. Moſt of the woods are pine, fir, oak, and beech. There is a vaſt number of foreſts of leſs note in every part of this country; almoſt every count, baron, or gentleman, having a chace or park adorned with pleaſure houſes, and well ſtocked with game, viz. deer, of which there are ſeven or eight ſorts, as roebucks, ſtags, &c. of all ſizes and colours, and many of a vaſt growth; plenty of hares, conies, foxes, bears, wolves, and boars. They abound ſo much alſo with wild fowl, that in many places the peaſants leave them and veniſon for their ordinary food.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] No country can boaſt a greater variety of noble large rivers than Germany. At their head ſtands the Danube or Donaw, ſo called from the ſwiftneſs of the current, and which ſome pretend to be naturally the fineſt river in the world. From Vienna to Belgrade it is ſo broad, that, in the wars between the Turks and Chriſtians, ſhips of war have been engaged on it; and its conveniency for carriage to all the countries through which it paſſes is inconceivable. The Danube, however, contains a vaſt number of cataracts and whirlpools; its ſtream is rapid, and its courſe, without reckoning turnings or windings, is computed to be 1620 miles. The other principal rivers are the Rhine, Elbe, Oder, Weſer, and Moſelle.

The chief lakes of Germany, not to mention many inferior ones, are thoſe of Conſtance and Bregentz. Beſides theſe are the Chiemſee, or the lake of Bavaria; and the Zecknitzer-ſee in the dutchy of Carniola, whoſe waters often run off and return again in an extraordinary manner.

Beſides thoſe lakes and rivers, in ſome of which are found pearls, Germany contains large noxious bodies of ſtanding water, which are next to peſtilential, and afflict the neighbouring natives with many deplorable diſorders.

MINERAL WATERS AND BATHS.] Germany is ſaid to contain more of thoſe than all Europe beſides. All Europe has heard of the Spa waters, and thoſe of Pyrmont. Thoſe of Aix la Chapelle are ſtill more noted. They are divided into the Emperor's Bath, and the Little Bath, and the ſprings of

of both are ſo hot, that they let them cool ten or twelve hours before they uſe them. Each of thoſe, and many other waters have their partizans in the medical faculty, and if we are to believe all they ſay, they cure diſeaſes internal and cutaneous, either by drinking or bathing. The baths and medicinal waters of Embs, Wiſbaden, Schwalbach, and Wildungen, likewiſe perform their wonders in almoſt all diſeaſes. The mineral ſprings at the laſt mentioned place are ſaid to intoxicate as ſoon as wine, and therefore they are incloſed. Carlſbad and Baden baths have been deſcribed and recommended by many great phyſicians, and uſed with great ſucceſs by many royal perſonages.

After all, many are of opinion that great part of the ſalutary virtues aſcribed to theſe waters is owing to the exerciſes and amuſements of the patients. It is the intereſt of the proprietors to provide for both; and many of the German princes feel the benefit of the many elegant and polite inſtitutions for the diverſion of the public. The neatneſs, cleanlineſs, and conveniency of the places of public reſort are inconceivable; and though at firſt they are attended with expence, yet they more than pay themſelves in a few years by the company which crouds to them from all parts of the world; many of whom do not repair thither for health, but for amuſement and converſation.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Germany abounds in both. Bohemia, and many places in the circle of Auſtria, and other parts of Germany, contain mines of ſilver, quickſilver, copper, tin, iron, lead, ſulphur, nitre, and vitriol. Salt-petre, ſalt-mines, and ſalt-pits are found in Auſtria, Bavaria, Sileſia, and the Lower Saxony; as are carbuncles, amethiſts, jaſper, ſaphire, agate, alabaſter, ſeveral ſorts of pearls, turquois ſtones, and the fineſt of rubies, which adorn the cabinets of the greateſt princes and virtuoſi. In Bavaria, Tirol, and Liege are quarries of curious marble, ſlate, chalk, ochre, red lead, allum and bitumen; beſides other foſſils. In ſeveral places are dug up ſtones, which to a ſtrong fancy repreſent different animals, and ſometimes trees of the human form. Many of the German circles furniſh coal-pits, and the *terra ſigillata* of Mentz, with white, yellow, and red veins, is thought to be an antidote againſt poiſon.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] Theſe differ in Germany very little, if at all, from the countries I have already deſcribed; but naturaliſts are of opinion, that had the Germans, even before the middle of this century, been acquainted with agriculture, their country would have been the moſt fruitful of any in Europe. Even in its preſent, what we

may

may call rude ſtate, proviſions are more cheap and plentiful in Germany than in any other country perhaps in the world; witneſs the prodigious armies which the moſt uncultivated part of it maintained during the late war, while many of the richeſt and moſt fertile provinces remained untouched.

The Rheniſh and the Moſelle wines differ from thoſe of other countries in a peculiar lightneſs and deterſive qualities, more ſovereign in ſome diſeaſes than any medicine.

The German wild boar differs in colour from our common hogs. Their fleſh, and the hams made of it is preferred by many, even to thoſe of Weſtmoreland, for flavour and grain. The glutton of Germany is ſaid to be the moſt voracious of all animals. Its prey is almoſt every thing that has life, which it can maſter, eſpecially birds, hares, rabbits, goats, and fawns; whom they ſurprize artfully and devour greedily. On theſe the glutton feeds ſo ravenouſly, that it falls into a kind of a torpid ſtate, and not being able to move he is killed by the huntſmen; but though both boars and wolves will kill him in that condition, they will not eat him. His colour is a beautiful brown, with a faint tinge of red.

Germany yields abundance of excellent heavy horſes; but their oxen and ſheep are not comparable to thoſe of England, probably owing to the want of ſkill in feeding and rearing them. Some parts of Germany are remarkable for fine larks, and great variety of ſinging birds, which are ſent to all parts of Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS. As the empire of Germany is a collection of ſeparate ſtates, each having a different government and police, we can ſay little with preciſion as to the number of its inhabitants; but if they are fixed at twenty millions, the number is perhaps not exaggerated. When the landholders become better acquainted with agriculture and cultivation, population muſt naturally encreaſe among them.

The Germans in their perſons are tall, fair, and ſtrong built. The ladies have generally fine complexions; and ſome of them, eſpecially in Saxony, have all the delicacy of features and ſhape that are ſo bewitching in ſome other countries; but this muſt be underſtood of the higher ranks.

Both men and women affect rich dreſſes, which in faſhion are the ſame as in France and England; but the better ſort of men are exceſſively fond of gold and ſilver lace, eſpecially if they are in the army. The ladies at the principal courts differ not much in their dreſs from the French and Engliſh, only they are not ſo exceſſively fond of paint, as the former. At ſome courts they appear in rich furs, and all of them are loaded with jewels, if they can obtain them. The female part of the burghers families, in many of the German towns, dreſs in a very

very different manner, and ſome of them inconceivably fantaſtic, as may be ſeen in many prints publiſhed in books of travels; but in this reſpect they are gradually reforming, and many of them make quite a different appearance in their dreſs from what they did thirty or forty years ago; as to the peaſantry and labourers, they dreſs as in other parts of Europe, according to their employments, conveniency, and opulence. The ſtoves made uſe of in Germany are the ſame with thoſe already mentioned, in the northern nations, and are ſometimes made portable, ſo that the ladies carry them to church. In Weſtphalia, and many other parts of Germany, they ſleep between two feather-beds, with ſheets ſtitched to them, which by uſe becomes a very comfortable practice. The moſt unhappy part of the Germans are the tenants of little needy princes; who ſqueeze them to keep up their own grandeur; but in general the circumſtances of the common people are far preferable to thoſe of the French.

The Germans are naturally a frank, honeſt, hoſpitable people, free from artifice and diſguiſe. The higher orders are ridiculouſly proud of titles, anceſtry, and ſhew. The Germans, in general, are thought to want animation, as their perſons promiſe more vigour and activity than they commonly exert, even in the field of battle. But when commanded by able generals, eſpecially the Italians, ſuch as Montecuculi and prince Eugene, they have done great things, both againſt the Turks and the French. The imperial arms have ſeldom made any remarkable figure againſt either of thoſe two nations, or againſt the Swedes or Spaniards, when commanded by German generals. This poſſibly might be owing to the arbitrary obſtinacy of the court of Vienna; for in the two laſt wars the Auſtrians exhibited prodigies of military valour and genius.

Induſtry, application, and perſeverance, are the great characteriſtics of the German nation, eſpecially the mechanical part of it. Their works of art would be incredible were they not viſible, eſpecially in watch and clock-making, jewelry, turnery, ſculpture, drawing, painting, and certain kinds of architecture, ſome of which I ſhall have occaſion to mention. The Germans have been charged with intemperance in eating and drinking, and perhaps not unjuſtly, owing to the vaſt plenty of their country in wine and proviſions of every kind. But thoſe practices ſeem now to be wearing out. At the greateſt tables, though the gueſts drink pretty freely at dinner, yet the repaſt is commonly finiſhed by coffee, after three or four public toaſts have been drank. But no people have more feaſting at marriages, funerals, and birth-days.

The German nobility are generally men of ſo much honour, that a ſharper in other countries, eſpecially in England, meets with

with more credit if he pretends to be a German, rather than of any other nation.

The merchants and tradeſmen are very civil and obliging. All the ſons of noblemen inherit their fathers titles, which greatly perplexes the heralds and genealogiſts of that country. This perhaps is one of the reaſons why the German huſbands are not quite ſo complaiſant as they ought otherwiſe to be to their ladies, who are not entitled to any preeminence at the table; nor indeed do they ſeem to affect it, being far from either ambition or loquacity, though they are ſaid to be ſomewhat too fond of gaming. From what has been premiſed, it may eaſily be conceived, that many of the German nobility, having no other hereditary eſtate than a high ſounding title, eaſily enter into their armies, and thoſe of other ſovereigns. Their fondneſs for title is attended with many other inconveniencies. Their princes think that the cultivation of their lands, though it may treble their revenue, is below their attention; and that, as they are a ſpecies of beings ſuperior to labourers of every kind, they would demean themſelves in being concerned in the improvement of their grounds.

The domeſtic diverſions of the Germans are the ſame as in England; billiards, cards, dice, fencing, dancing, and the like. In ſummer, people of faſhion repair to places of public reſort, and drink the waters. As to their field diverſions, beſides their favourite one of hunting, they have bull and bear baiting, and the like. The inhabitants of Vienna live luxurioufly, a great part of their time being ſpent in feaſting and carouſing; and in winter, when the ſeveral branches of the Danube are frozen over, and the ground covered with ſnow, the ladies take their recreation in ſledges of different ſhapes, ſuch as griffins, tygers, ſwans, ſcollop-ſhells, &c. Here the lady ſits, dreſſed in velvet lined with rich furs, and adorned with laces and jewels, having on her head a velvet cap; and the ſledge is drawn by one horſe, ſtag, or other creature, ſet off with plumes of feathers, ribbons, and bells. As this diverſion is taken chiefly in the night-time, ſervants ride before the ſledge with torches, and a gentleman ſitting on the ſledge behind guides the horſe.

RELIGION.] This is a copious article, but I ſhall confine myſelf to what is moſt neceſſary to be known. Before the reformation introduced by Luther, the German biſhops were poſſeſſed (as indeed many of them are at this day) of prodigious power and revenues, and were the tyrants of the emperors as well as the people. Their ignorance was only equalled by their ſuperſtition. The Bohemians were the firſt who had an idea of reformation, and made ſo glorious a ſtand for many years againſt the errors of Rome, that they were indulged in the

liberty of taking the ſacrament in both kinds, and other freedoms not tolerated in the Romiſh church. This was in a great meaſure owing to Wickliff, an Engliſhman, who went much farther in reforming the real errors of popery than Luther himſelf. Wickliff was ſeconded by John Huſs, and Jerome of Prague, who, notwithſtanding the emperor's ſafe conduct, were infamouſly burnt at the council of Conſtance.

The reformation introduced afterwards by Luther *, of which we have ſpoke in the introduction, though it ſtruck at the chief abuſes in the church of Rome, was thought in ſome points (particularly that of conſubſtantiation, by which the real body of Chriſt, as well as the elements of bread and wine, is ſuppoſed to be taken in the ſacrament) to be imperfect. Calviniſm †, therefore, or the religion of Geneva (as now practiſed in the church of Scotland) was introduced into Germany, and is now the religion of the king of Pruſſia, the landgrave of Heſſe, and ſome other princes, who maintain a parity of orders in the church. Some go ſo far as to ſay that the numbers of proteſtants and papiſts in the empire are now almoſt equal. Germany, particularly Bohemia, Moravia, and the Palatinate, is overrun with ſectaries of all kinds; and Jews abound in the empire. At preſent, the modes of worſhip and forms of church government are by the proteſtant German princes conſidered in a civil rather than a religious light. The proteſtant clergy are learned and exemplary in their deportment, but the popiſh ignorant and libertine.

ARCHBISHOPSEES AND BISHOPSEES.] Theſe are differently repreſented by authors, ſome of whom repreſent Vienna as being a ſuffragan to the archbiſhopſee of Saltzburg; and others as being an archbiſhopric but depending immediately upon the pope. The others are the archbiſhop of Mentz, who has under him twelve ſuffragans, but one of them, the biſhop of Bamberg, is ſaid to be exempted from his juriſdiction; —Triers has three ſuffragans; —Cologne has four; —Magdeburg has five; Saltzburg has nine, beſides Vienna; —and Bremen three.

At different periods ſince the reformation it has been found expedient, to ſatisfy the claims of temporal princes, to ſecularize the following biſhopſees, Bremen, Verden, Magdeburg, Halberſtadt, Minden, Oſnaburg, (which goes alternately to the houſes of Bavaria and Hanover, and is at preſent held by his Britannic

* Born in Saxony, in the year 1483, began to diſpute the doctrines of the Romiſh church 1517, and died 1546, in the 63d year of his age.

† John Calvin was born in the province of Picardy, in the north of France, anno 1506. Being obliged to fly from that kingdom, he ſettled at Geneva in 1539, where he eſtabliſhed a new form of church diſcipline, which was ſoon after embraced by ſeveral nations and ſtates, who are now denominated Calviniſts, or Preſbyterians. He died at Geneva, in the year 1564; and his writings make nine volumes in folio.

Britannic majesty's second son) and Lubec. Such of those sees as were archbishoprics are now considered as duchies, and the bishoprics as principalities.

LANGUAGE.] The Teutonic part of the German tongue is an original language, and has no relation to the Celtic. It is called High Dutch, and is the mother tongue of all Germany; but varies so much in its dialect, that the people of one province scarcely understand those of another. Latin and French are the most useful languages in Germany, when a traveller is ignorant of High Dutch.

The German Pater-Noster is as follows: *Unser Nater, de hu hist in himmel; geheiliget wer dein nahme: zukomm uns dein reich: dein wille geschete auf erden, wie in himmel; unser tæglich brod gib uns heut; und vergih uns unser schuld als wir vergehen unsern scaldigern; und fuerro uns nicht in versuchung sondern elæse uns von vehel.* Amen.

LEARNING, LEARNED MEN, AND UNIVERSITIES.] No country has produced a greater variety of authors than Germany, and there is no where a more general taste for reading, especially in the protestant countries. Printing is encouraged to a fault; every man of letters is an author; they multiply books without number, thousands of theses and disputations are annually published; for no man can be a graduate in their universities, who has not published one disputation at least. In this country there are 36 universities, of which 17 are protestant, 17 Roman-catholic, and two mixed; besides a vast number of colleges, gymnasia, pedagogies, and Latin schools. There are also many academies and societies for the promoting the study of natural philosophy, the belles lettres, antiquities, &c. as the Imperial Leopoldine academy of the *naturæ curiosi*; the academy of sciences at Berlin, at Gottingen, at Erfurth, at Leipsic, at Duisburgh, to which we may add the Latin society at Gena. Of the public libraries, the most celebrated are those of Vienna, Wolfenbuttle, Hanover, Gottengen, Weimar, and the council library at Leipsic. The Germans have written largely upon the Roman and Canon laws; Stahl, Van Swieten, Storck, and Hoffman, have contributed greatly to the improvement of physic; Ruvinus and Dillenius of botany; Heister of anatomy and surgery; Newman, Zewmermann, Pott, and Margraff, of chymistry. In philosophy, natural and moral, the reputation of Leibnitz, Wolfius, Puffendorf, Thomasius, Otto van Gueriche, and Kepler, is great. Every prince, baron, and gentleman in Germany is a chymist or natural philosopher. Germany has also produced good political writers, geographers, and historians, of whom Busching is the most voluminous: but they

ſeem to have no great taſte or capacity for works of wit and entertainment, as poetry, plays, romances, and novels, or what is called the belles lettres; but they have had ſome good critics and antiquarians. They have one great defect, however, in all their writings, namely, that they are extremely prolix, dry, voluminous, and mechanical, and know little or nothing of that valuable art in which ſome nations excel, namely, of enlivening their performances, and mixing the pleaſant with the uſeful. With reſpect to the fine arts, the Germans have acquitted themſelves tolerably well. Germany has produced ſome good painters, architects, ſculptors, and engravers. They even pretend to have been the firſt inventors of engraving, etching, and metzotinto, as well as of gunpowder, guns and printing. For the improvement of ſome of theſe arts academies have been eſtabliſhed in ſome parts of Germany; at Vienna, in particular, and Berlin are academies for painting, ſculpture and architecture; at Dreſden and Nurenberg are academies for painting; and at Auſburgh is the Imperial Franciſcan academy of the fine arts. Germany has likewiſe produced ſome excellent muſicians; Handel, Bach, and Haſſe, of whom Handel ſtands at the head; and it is acknowledged that he arrived at the ſublime of muſic, but he had not the ſmalleſt idea between muſic and ſentimental expreſſion.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE; with occaſional eſtimates of REVENUES AND POPULATION.

This is a copious head in all countries, but more particularly ſo in Germany, on account of the numerous independent ſtates it contains. The reader therefore muſt be contented with the mention of the moſt capital places and their peculiarities.

Though Berlin is accounted the capital of all his Pruſſian majeſty's dominions, and exhibits perhaps the moſt illuſtrious example of ſudden improvement that this age can boaſt of; yet, during the late war, it was found a place of no ſtrength, and fell twice, almoſt without reſiſtance, into the hands of the Auſtrians, who, had it not been for the politeneſs of their generals, and their love of the fine arts, which always preſerves mankind from barbarity and inhumanity, would have levelled it to the ground.

Berlin lies on the river Spree, and, beſides a royal palace, has many other ſuperb palaces; it contains fourteen Lutheran, and eleven Calviniſt churches, beſides a popiſh one. Its ſtreets and ſquares are ſpacious; its manufacturers of all kinds are numerous, and well provided: it abounds with theatres, ſchools, libraries, and charitable foundations. The number

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of its inhabitants, according to Buſching, in 1755, was 126,661, including the garriſon. In the ſame year, and according to the ſame author, there were no fewer than, 443 ſilk-looms, 149 of half-ſilks, 2858 looms for woollen ſtuffs, 453 for cotton, 248 for linen, 454 for lace-work, 39 frames for ſilk ſtockings, and 310 for worſted ones. They have here manufactures of tapeſtry, gold and ſilver lace, and mirrors.

The electorate of Saxony is by nature the richeſt country in Germany, if not in Europe: it contains 210 walled towns, 61 market towns, and about 3000 villages, according to the lateſt accounts of the Germans themſelves (to which, however, we are not to give an implicit belief) and the revenue, eſtimating each rix-dollar at four ſhillings and ſixpence, amounts to 1,350,000 l. This ſum is ſo moderate, when compared to the richneſs of the ſoil, which, if we are to believe Dr. Buſching, produces even diamonds, and almoſt all the precious ſtones to be found in the Eaſt-Indies and elſewhere, and the variety of ſplendid manufactures, that I am apt to believe the Saxon princes to have been the moſt moderate and patriotic of any in Germany.

We can ſay little more, than has been already ſaid of all fine cities, of Dreſden, the elector of Saxony's capital, that its fortifications, palaces, public buildings, churches, and charitable foundations; and above all, its ſuburbs are magnificent beyond all expreſſion; that it is beautifully ſituated on both ſides the Elbe; and that it is the ſchool of Germany, for ſtatuary, painting, enamelling, and carving; not to mention its mirrors, and founderies for bells and cannon, and its foreign commerce carried on by means of the Elbe. The inhabitants of Dreſden, by the lateſt accounts, amount to 110,000.

The city of Hanover, the capital of that electorate, ſtands on the river Leine, but is of no great conſideration. It contains about 1,200 houſes, among which there is an electoral palace. It carries on ſome manufactures; and in its neighbourhood lies the palace and elegant gardens of Herenhauſen. The dominions of the electorate of Hanover contain about 750,000 people, who live in 58 cities, and 60 market towns, beſides villages. The city and ſuburbs of Bremen, belonging by purchaſe to the ſaid elector, contains about 50,000 inhabitants, and has a conſiderable trade by the Weſer. The other towns belonging to the ſaid electorate have trade and manufactures; but, in general, it muſt be remarked, that the electorate has ſuffered greatly by the acceſſion of the Hanover family to the crown of Great-Britain. I ſhall here juſt mention,

on account of its relation to our royal family, the ſecularized biſhopric of Oſnaburg, lying between the rivers Weſer and Ems. The chief city, Oſnaburg, has been long famous all over Europe for the manufacture known by the name of the duchy, and for the manufacture of the beſt Weſtphalia hams. The whole revenue of the biſhopric amounts to about 30,000 l.

Breſlau, the capital of Sileſia, which formerly belonged to the kingdom of Bohemia, lies on the river Oder, and is a fine city, where all ſects of Chriſtians and Jews are tolerated, but the magiſtracy is Lutheran. Since Sileſia fell under the Pruſſian dominion, its trade is greatly improved, though very inconſiderable before. The manufactures of Sileſia, which principally center at Breſlau, are numerous. The revenue of the whole is by ſome ſaid to bring his Pruſſian majeſty in near a million ſterling; but this ſum ſeems to be exaggerated, if, as other authors of good note write, it never brought into the houſe of Auſtria above 500,000 l. yearly.

Vienna is the capital of the circle of Auſtria, and being the reſidence of the emperor, is ſuppoſed to be the capital of Germany. It is a noble and a ſtrong city, and the princes of the houſe of Auſtria have omitted nothing that could contribute to its grandeur and riches. The two Auſtrias, and the hereditary dominions of that houſe, are by nature ſo well furniſhed with all materials for the luxuries, the conveniencies, and the neceſſaries of life, that foreign importations into this city are almoſt totally prohibited. Vienna contains an excellent univerſity, a bank, which is in the management of her own magiſtrates, and a court of commerce immediately ſubject to the aulic council. Its religious buildings, with the walks and gardens, occupy a ſixth part of the town; but the ſuburbs are larger than the city. It would be endleſs to enumerate the many palaces, two of which are imperial, of this capital; its ſquares, academies, and libraries; and, among others, the fine one of prince Eugene, with his and the imperial cabinets of curioſities. Among its rich convents is one for the Scotch nation, built in honour of their countryman St. Colman, the patron of Auſtria; and one of the ſix gates of this city is called the Scots gate, in remembrance of ſome notable exploit performed there by the troops of that nation. The inhabitants, if we are to believe Dr. Buſching, are between 180,000 and 200,000; and the encouragement given them by their ſovereigns, has rendered Vienna the rendezvous of all the nations round.

After all that has been ſaid of this magnificent city, the moſt candid and ſenſible of thoſe who have viſited it, are far from being laviſh in its praiſe. The ſtreets, excepting ſome

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in the ſuburbs, are narrow and dirty; the houſes and furniture of the citizens are greatly diſproportioned to the magnificence of the palaces, ſquares, and other public buildings; but above all, the exceſſive impoſts laid by the houſe of Auſtria upon every commodity in its dominions, muſt always keep the manufacturing part of their ſubjects poor. His preſent imperial majeſty ſeems to be ſenſible of truths which were plain to all the world but his predeceſſors and their counſellors: he examines things with his own eyes, and has deſcended from that haughtineſs of demeanour which rendered the imperial court ſo long diſagreeable, and indeed ridiculous, to the reſt of Europe. In general, the condition of the Auſtrian ſubjects has been greatly meliorated ſince his acceſſion to the imperial throne; but in this he acts agreeably to the ſentiments of his mother, who is the immediate poſſeſſor of thoſe vaſt dominions.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. I have, in deſcribing the mineral and other ſprings, anticipated great part of this article, which is of itſelf very copious. Every court of Germany produces a cabinet of curioſities, artificial and natural, antient and modern. The tun at Heidelburg holds 800 hogſheads, and is generally full of the beſt Rheniſh wine, from which ſtrangers are ſeldom ſuffered to retire ſober. Vienna itſelf is a curioſity; for here you ſee the greateſt variety of inhabitants that is to be met with any where, as Greeks, Tranſylvanians, Sclavonians, Turks, Tartars, Hungarians, Croats, Germans, Poles, Spaniards, French, and Italians, in their proper habits. The imperial library at Vienna, is a great literary rarity on account of its ancient manuſcripts. It contains upwards of 80,000 volumes, among which are many valuable manuſcripts in Hebrew, Syriac, Arabic, Turkiſh, Armenian, Coptic, and Chineſe; but the antiquity of ſome of them is queſtionable, particularly a New Teſtament in Greek, ſaid to have been written 1,500 years ago, in gold letters, upon purple. Here are likewiſe many thouſand Greek, Roman, and Gothic coins and medals; with a vaſt collection of other curioſities in art and nature. The vaſt Gothic palaces, cathedrals, caſtles, and above all, town-houſes, in Germany, are very curious: they ſtrike the beholder with an idea of rude magnificence; and ſometimes they have an effect that is preferable even to Greek architecture. The chief houſes in great cities and villages have the ſame appearance, probably, as they had 400 years ago; and their fortifications generally conſiſt of a brick-wall, trenches filled with water, and baſtions or half-moons.

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Next to the lakes and waters, the caves and rocks are the chief natural curioſities of Germany. Mention is made of a cave, near Blackenburg in Hartz-foreſt, of which none have yet found the end, though many have advanced into it for 20 miles; but the moſt remarkable curioſity of that kind is near Hammelen, about 30 miles from Hanover, where at the mouth of a cave ſtands a monument which commemorates the loſs of 130 children, who were there ſwallowed up, in 1284. Though this fact is very ſtrongly atteſted, it has been diſputed by ſome critics. Frequent mention is made of two rocks near Blackenburg, exactly repreſenting two monks in their proper habits; and of many ſtones which ſeem to be petrifactions of fiſhes, frogs, trees, and leaves.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Germany has vaſt advantages in point of commerce, from its ſituation, in the heart of Europe, and perforated as it were with great rivers. Its native materials for commerce (beſides the mines and minerals I have already mentioned) are hemp, hops, flax, aniſe, cummins, tobacco, ſaffron, madder, truffles, variety of excellent roots and pot-herbs, and fine fruits, equal to thoſe of France and Italy. Germany exports to other countries corn, tobacco, horſes, lean cattle, butter, cheeſe, honey, wax, wines, linen, and woollen, yarn, ribbons, ſilk and cotton ſtuffs, toys, turnery wares in wood, metals, and ivory, goat-ſkins, wool, timber, both for ſhip-building and houſes, cannon, and bullets, bombs and bomb-ſhells, iron plates and ſtoves, tinned plates, ſteel work, copper, braſs-wire, porcelain, the fineſt upon earth, earthen-ware, glaſſes, mirrors, hog's briſtles, mum, beer, tartar, ſmalts, zaffer, Pruſſian blue, printer's ink, and many other things. Some think that the balance of trade between England and Germany is to the diſadvantage of the former; but others are of a different opinion, as they cannot import coarſe woollen manufactures, and ſeveral other commodities, ſo cheap from any other country.

The revocation of the edict of Nantes, by Lewis XIV. which obliged the French proteſtants to ſettle in different parts of Europe, was of infinite ſervice to the German manufactures. They now make velvets, ſilks, ſtuffs of all kinds, fine and coarſe; linen and thread, and every thing neceſſary for wear, to great perfection. The porcelain of Meiſſen, in the electorate of Saxony, and its paintings, exceed that of all the world.

TRADING COMPANIES.] The Aſiatic company of Embden, eſtabliſhed by his preſent Pruſſian majeſty, is, excluſive of the Hanſeatic league, the only commercial company in

Germany; but in the great cities very large extenſive partnerſhips in trade ſubſiſt.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Almoſt every prince in Germany (and there are about 300 of them) is arbitrary with regard to the government of his own eſtates, but the whole of them form a great confederacy, governed by political laws, at the head of which is the emperor, and whoſe power in the collective body or the diet, is not directorial but executive, and even that gives him vaſt influence. The ſupreme power in Germany is in the diet, which is compoſed of the emperor, or in his abſence, of his commiſſary, and of the three colleges of the empire. The firſt of theſe is the electoral college; the ſecond is the college of princes; and the third, the college of imperial towns.

The dignity of the empire, though elective, has for ſome centuries belonged to the houſe of Auſtria, as being the moſt powerful of the German princes; but by French management upon the death of Charles VI. grandfather, by the mother's ſide, to the preſent emperor, the elector of Bavaria was choſen to that dignity, and died, as is ſuppoſed, of heart-break, after a ſhort uncomfortable reign. The power of the emperor is regulated by the capitulation he ſigns at his election; and the perſon, who in his life-time is choſen king of the Romans, ſucceeds without a new election to the empire. He can confer titles and enfranchiſements upon cities and towns, but as emperor he can levy no taxes, nor make war nor peace without the conſent of the diet. When that conſent is obtained, every prince muſt contribute his quota of men and money, as valued in the matriculation roll, though perhaps, as an elector or prince, he may eſpouſe a different ſide from that of the diet. This forms the intricacy of the German conſtitution, for George II. of England was obliged to furniſh his quota againſt the houſe of Auſtria, and the king of Pruſſia, while he was fighting for them both. The emperor claims a precedency for his ambaſſadors in all chriſtian courts.

The electors of the empire are nine in number. Each has a particular office in the imperial court, and they have the ſole election of the emperor. They are in order,

First, The archbiſhop of Mentz, who is high chancellor of the empire when in Germany.

Second, The archbiſhop of Treves, who is high chancellor of the empire in France.

Third, The archbiſhop of Cologne, who is the ſame in Italy.

The king, or rather elector of Bohemia, who is cupbearer.

The

The elector of Bavaria, who is grand sewer, or officer who serves out the feasts.

The elector of Saxony, who is great marshal of the empire.

The elector of Brandenburg (now king of Prussia) who is great chamberlain.

The elector Palatine, who is great steward; and,

The elector of Hanover, (king of Great-Britain) who claims the part of arch-treasurer.

It is necessary for the emperor before he calls a diet to have the advice of those members; and during the vacancy of the imperial throne the electors of Saxony and Bavaria have jurisdiction, the former over the northern, and the latter over the southern circles.

The ecclesiastical princes are as absolute as the temporal ones in their several dominions. The chief of these, besides the three ecclesiastical electors already mentioned, are the archbishop of Saltzburg, the bishops of Liege, Munster, Spire, Worms, Wirtsburg, Strasburg, Osnaburg, Bamberg, and Paderborn. Besides these are many other ecclesiastical princes. Germany abounds with many abbots and abbesses, whose jurisdictions are likewise absolute; and some of them very considerable, and all of them are chosen by their several chapters. The chief of the secular princes are the landgrave of Hesse, the dukes of Brunswick Wolfenbuttel, Wirtemberg, Mecklenburgh, Saxe-Gotha, the marquisses of Baden and Culmbach, with the princes of Nassau, Anhalt, Furstenburg, and many others, who have all high titles, and are sovereigns in their own dominions. The free cities are likewise sovereign states; those which are imperial, or compose a part of the diet, bear the imperial eagle in their arms; those which are Hanse-towns, of which we have spoken in the Introduction, have still great privileges and immunities, but they subsist no longer as a political body.

The imperial chamber, and that of Vienna, which is better known by the name of the Aulic-council, are the two supreme courts for determining the great causes of the empire, arising between its respective members. The imperial council consists of 50 judges or assessors. The president and four of them are appointed by the emperor, and each of the electors chuse one, and the other princes and states the rest. This court is at present held at Wetzlar, but formerly it resided at Spire; and causes may be brought before it by appeal. The aulic-council was originally no better than a revenue court of the dominions of the house of Austria. As that family's power encreased, the jurisdiction of the aulic-council was extended; and at last, to the great disgust of the princes of the empire, it usurped upon the powers

powers of the imperial chamber, and even of the diet. It conſiſts, of a preſident, a vice-chancellor, a vice-preſident, and a certain number of aulic-counſellors, of whom ſix are proteſtants, beſides other officers, but the emperor in fact is maſter of the court.

Theſe courts follow the ancient laws of the empire for their guides, the golden bull, the pacification of Paſſau, and the civil law.

Beſides theſe courts of juſtice, each of the nine circles I have already mentioned has a director to take care of the peace and order of the circle. Theſe directors are commonly as follow. For Weſtphalia, the biſhop of Munſter, or duke of Neuburg. For Lower Saxony, the elector of Hanover or Brandenburg. For Upper Saxony, the elector of Saxony. For the Lower Rhine, the archbiſhop of Mentz. For the Upper Rhine, the elector Palatine or biſhop of Worms. For Franconia, the biſhop of Bamburg, or marquis of Culmbach. For Suabia, the duke of Wirtemberg, or biſhop of Conſtance. For Bavaria, the elector of Bavaria, or archbiſhop of Saltzburg; and for Auſtria, the archduke of Auſtria, his imperial majeſty.

After, upon any great emergency, the votes of the diet are collected, and ſentence pronounced, the emperor by his prerogative commits the execution of it to a particular prince or princeſs, whoſe troops live at free quarter upon the eſtates of the delinquent party, and he is obliged to make good all expences; upon the whole, the conſtitution of the Germanic body is of itſelf a ſtudy of no ſmall difficulty. But however plauſibly invented the ſeveral checks upon the imperial power may be, it is certain that the houſe of Auſtria has more than once endangered the liberties of the empire, and that they have been ſaved by France. At preſent a great power, the houſe of Brandenburg, has ſtarted up to balance the Auſtrian greatneſs; and there ſeems to be no great appearance of any internal commotions among the princes of the empire, a circumſtance that is extremely favourable to the tranquillity of Europe, and the intereſt of Great-Britain in particular. Before I cloſe this head, it may be neceſſary to inform the reader of the meaning of a term which has of late frequently appeared in the German hiſtory, I mean that of the *Pragmatic Sanction*. This is no other than a proviſion made by the emperor Charles VI. for preſerving the indiviſibility of the Auſtrian dominions in the perſon of the next deſcendant of the laſt poſſeſſor, whether male or female. This proviſion has been often diſputed by other branches of the houſe of Auſtria, who have been occaſionally ſupported by France from political views, though the pragmatic

pragmatic ſanction is ſtrongly guarantied by almoſt all the powers of Europe. The late emperor, elector of Bavaria, and the late king of Poland attempted to overthrow it, as being deſcended from the daughters of the emperor Joſeph, elder brother to Charles VI. It has likewiſe been again and again oppoſed by the court of Spain.

Few of the territories of the German princes are ſo large as to be aſſigned to viceroys, to be oppreſſed and fleeced at pleaſure; nor are they without redreſs when they ſuffer any grievance; they may appeal to the general diet or great council of the empire for relief. Whereas in France the lives and fortunes of the ſubject are entirely at the diſpoſal of the grand monarch. The ſubjects of the petty princes in Germany are generally the moſt unhappy; for theſe princes, affecting the grandeur and ſplendor of the more powerful, in the number and appearance of their officers and domeſtics, in their palaces, gardens, pictures, curioſities, guards, bands of muſic, tables, dreſs, and furniture, are obliged to ſupport all this vain pomp and parade at the expence of their vaſſals and dependants. With reſpect to the burghers and peaſants of Germany, the former in many places enjoy great privileges; the latter alſo, in ſome parts, for inſtance, in Franconia, Swabia, and on the Rhine, are generally a free people, or perform only certain ſervices to their ſuperiors, and only pay taxes; whereas in the marquiſate of Brandenburg, Pomerania, Luſatia, Moravia, Bohemia, Auſtria, &c. they may juſtly be denominated ſlaves, though in different degrees.

REVENUES.] The only revenue falling under this head is that of the emperor, who as ſuch has an annual income of about 5 or 6000 pounds ſterling, ariſing from ſome inconſiderable fiefs in the Black Foreſt. The Auſtrian revenues are immenſe, and are thought to amount to 7,000,000 ſterling in Germany and Italy, a ſum that goes far in thoſe countries. The late king of Pruſſia, whoſe revenues were not near ſo extenſive as thoſe of his preſent majeſty, though he maintained a large army, was ſo good an œconomiſt that he left 7,000,000 ſterling in his coffers; and ſome have thought that Sileſia alone brings half a million ſterling every year to this king. To behold the magnificence of many of the German courts, a ſtranger is apt to conceive very high ideas of the incomes of their princes, which is owing to the high price of money in that country, and conſequently the low price of proviſions and manufactures. In fact, though it is plain that ſome princes have much larger revenues than others, yet we cannot ſpeak with any tolerable preciſion on a ſubject of ſuch variety

and

and uncertainty, and which comprehends ſo many independent ſtates.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] During the two laſt wars, very little regard was paid, in carrying them on, to the ancient German conſtitutions, the whole management being engroſſed by the head of the houſe of Auſtria. The elector of Mentz keeps what is called a matriculation book or regiſter, which among other letters contain the aſſeſſments of men and money, which every prince and ſtate, who are members of the empire, is to advance when the army of the empire takes the field. The contributions in money are called Roman months, on account of the monthly aſſeſſments paid to the emperors when they viſited Rome. Thoſe aſſeſſments however are ſubject to great mutability. It is ſufficient here to ſay, that upon a moderate computation the ſecular princes of the empire can bring to the field 379,000 men, and the eccleſiaſtical 74,500, in all 453,500; of thoſe the emperor, as head of the houſe of Auſtria, is ſuppoſed to furniſh 90,000.

The elector of Mentz may maintain	6000
The elector of Triers	6000
The elector of Cologne	6000
The biſhop of Munſter	8000
The biſhop of Liege	8000
The archbiſhop of Saltzburg	8000
The biſhop of Wurtzburg	2000
The biſhop of Bamburg	5000
The biſhop of Paderborn	3000
The biſhop of Oſnabrug	2500
The abbot of Fulda	6000
The other biſhoprics of the empire	6000
The abbies and provoſtſhips of the empire	8000
Total of the eccleſiaſtical princes	74,500
The emperor, for Hungary	30000
——For Bohemia, Sileſia, and Moravia	30000
——For Auſtria, and other dominions	30000
The king of Pruſſia	40000
The elector of Saxony	25000
The elector Palatine	15000
The duke of Wirtemburg	15000
The landgrave of Heſſe Caſſel	15000
The prince of Baden	10000
The elector of Hanover	30000
The duke of Holſtein	12000
The duke of Mecklenburg	15000

The

The prince of Anhalt	6000
The prince of Lawenburg	6000
The elector of Bavaria	30000
The dukes of Saxony	10000
The prince of Naſſau	10000
The other princes and imperial towns	50000
The ſecular princes	379000
The eccleſiaſtical princes	74500
	453,500

IMPERIAL, ROYAL, AND OTHER TITLES, ARMS, AND ORDERS. The emperor of Germany pretends to be ſucceſſor to the emperors of Rome, and has long, on that account, been admitted to a tacit precedency on all public occaſions among the powers of Europe. Auſtria is but an archdukedom; nor has he, as the head of that houſe, a vote in the election of emperor, which is limited to Bohemia. Innumerable are the titles of principalities, dukedoms, baronies, and the like, with which he is veſted as archduke. The arms of the empire are a black eagle with two heads, hovering, with expanded wings, in a field of gold; and over the heads of the eagle is ſeen the imperial crown. It would be equally uſeleſs as difficult to enumerate all the different quarterings and armorial bearings of the archducal family. Every elector, and indeed every independent prince of any importance in Germany, claims a right of inſtituting orders; but the emperors pretend that they are not admiſſible unleſs confirmed by them. The emperors of Germany, as well as the kings of Spain, confer the order of the Golden Fleece, as deſcended from the houſe of Burgundy. The empreſs dowager Eleonora, in 1662 and 1666, created two orders of ladies, or female knights; and the preſent empreſs-queen inſtituted the order of St. Tereſa.

HISTORY.] The manners of the ancient Germans are deſcribed by the elegant and manly pencil of Tacitus, the Roman hiſtorian. They were a brave and independant race of men, and peculiarly diſtinguiſhed by their love of liberty and arms. They oppoſed the force of the Roman empire, not in its origin or in its decline, but after it had arrived at maturity, and ſtill continued in its full vigour. The country was divided into a number of principalities, independant of each other, though occaſionally connected by a military union for defending themſelves againſt ſuch enemies as threatened the liberty of them all. In this ſituation Germany remained, notwithſtanding the efforts of particular chieftains, or princes, to

to reduce the reſt into ſubjection, until the beginning of the ninth century: then it was that Charlemaigne, one of thoſe excentric and ſuperior geniuſſes who ſometimes ſtart up in a barbarous age, firſt extended his military power, and afterwards his civil authority, over the whole of this empire. The poſterity of Charlemaigne inherited the empire of Germany until the year 880, at which time the different princes aſſuming their original independence, rejected the Carlovinian line, and placed Arnulph, king of Bavaria, on the throne. Since this time, Germany has ever been conſidered as an elective monarchy. Princes of different families, according to the prevalence of their intereſt and arms, have mounted the throne. Of theſe, the moſt conſiderable, until the Auſtrian line acquired the imperial power, were the houſes of Saxony, Franconia, and Swabia. The reigns of theſe emperors contain nothing more remarkable than the conteſts between them and the popes. From hence, in the beginning of the thirteenth century, aroſe the factions of the Guelphs and Ghibelines, of which the former was attached to the popes, and the latter to the emperor; and both, by their virulence and inveteracy, tended to diſquiet the empire for ſeveral ages. The emperors too were often at war with the infidels, and ſometimes, as happens in all elective kingdoms, with one another about the ſucceſſion. But what more deſerves the attention of a judicious reader than all thoſe noiſy but unintereſting diſputes, is the progreſs of government in Germany, which was in ſome meaſure oppoſite to that of the other kingdoms of Europe. When the empire, raiſed by Charlemaigne, fell aſunder, all the different independent princes aſſumed the right of election; and thoſe now diſtinguiſhed by the name of electors, had no peculiar or legal influence in appointing a ſucceſſor to the imperial throne: they were only the officers of the king's houſhold, his ſecretary, his ſteward, chaplain, marſhal, or maſter of his horſe, &c. By degrees, however, as they lived near the king's perſon, and had, like all the other princes, independant territories belonging to them, they encreaſed their influence and authority; and in the reign of Otho III. 984, acquired the ſole right of electing the emperor. Thus while in the other kingdoms of Europe, the dignity of the great lords, who were all originally allodial, or independant barons, was diminiſhed by the power of the king, as in France, and by the influence of the people, as in Great Britain; in Germany, on the other hand, the power of the electors was raiſed upon the ruins of the emperor's ſupremacy, and of the peoples juriſdiction. In 1440, Frederic III. duke of Auſtria, was elected emperor, and the imperial dignity continued in

the male line of that family for three hundred years. His ſucceſſor, Maximilian, married the heireſs of Charles, duke of Burgundy, whereby Burgundy, and the ſeventeen provinces of the Netherlands, were annexed to the houſe of Auſtria. Charles V. grandſon of Maximilian, and heir to the kingdom of Spain, was elected emperor in the year 1519. Under him Mexico and Peru were conquered by the Spaniards, and in his reign happened the reformation of religion in ſeveral parts of Germany, which however was not confirmed by public authority till the year 1648, by the treaty of Weſtphalia, and in the reign of Ferdinand III. The reign of Charles V. was continually diſturbed by his wars with the German princes and French king, Francis I. Though ſucceſsful in the beginning of his reign, his good fortune, towards the concluſion of it, began to forſake him; which, with other reaſons, occaſioned his abdication of the crown.

His brother, Ferdinand I. who in 1558 ſucceeded to the throne, proved a moderate prince with regard to religion. He had the addreſs to get his ſon Maximilian declared king of the Romans in his own life time, and died in 1564. By his laſt will he ordered, that if either his own male iſſue, or that of his brother Charles, ſhould fail, his Auſtrian eſtates ſhould revert to his ſecond daughter, Anne, wife to the elector of Bavaria, and her iſſue. I mention this deſtination, as it gave riſe to the late oppoſition made by the houſe of Bavaria to the pragmatic ſanction, in favour of the empreſs-queen of Hungary, on the death of her father Charles VI. The reign of Maximilian II. was diſturbed with internal commotions, and an invaſion from the Turks; but he died in peace, in 1576. He was ſucceeded by his ſon Rodolph, who was involved in wars with the Hungarians, and in differences with his brother Matthias, to whom he ceded Hungary and Auſtria in his life time. He was ſucceeded in the empire by Matthias, under whom the reformers, who went under the names of Lutherans and Calviniſts, were ſo much divided among themſelves, as to threaten the empire with a civil war. The ambition of Matthias, at laſt, reconciled them; but the Bohemians revolted, and threw the imperial commiſſaries out of a window at Prague. This gave riſe to a ruinous war which laſted thirty years. Matthias thought to have exterminated both parties, but they formed a confederacy, called the Evangelic League, which was counterbalanced by a catholic league.

Matthias dying in 1618, was ſucceeded by his couſin, Ferdinand II. but the Bohemians offered their crown to Frederic the elector Palatine, the moſt powerful proteſtant prince in Germany, and ſon-in-law to his Britannic majeſty James I.

That

That prince was incautious enough to accept of the crown; but he loſt it, by being entirely defeated by the duke of Bavaria and the imperial generals, at the battle of Prague, and he himſelf was deprived of his electorate, the beſt part of which was given to the duke of Bavaria. The proteſtant princes of Germany, however, had among them at this time many able commanders, who were at the head of armies, and continued the war with wonderful obſtinacy; among them were the margrave of Baden Durlach; Chriſtian, duke of Brunſwic, and count Mansfeld: the laſt was one of the beſt generals of the age. Chriſtiern IV. king of Denmark, declared for them; and Richelieu, the French miniſter, was not fond of ſeeing the houſe of Auſtria aggrandized. The emperor, on the other hand, had excellent generals; and Chriſtiern, having put himſelf at the head of the evangelic league, was defeated by Tilly, an imperialiſt of great reputation in war. Ferdinand made ſo moderate a uſe of his advantages obtained over the proteſtants, that they formed a freſh confederacy at Leipſic, of which the celebrated Guſtavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, was the head. I have already deſcribed his amazing victories and progreſs, when he was killed at the battle of Lutzen, in 1632. But the proteſtant cauſe did not die with him. He had brought up a ſet of heroes, ſuch as the duke of Saxe Weimar, Torſtenſon, Bannier and others, who ſhook the Auſtrian power, till under the mediation of Sweden, a general peace was concluded among all the powers at war, at Munſter, in the year 1648; which forms the baſis of the preſent political ſyſtem of Europe.

Ferdinand II. was ſucceeded by his ſon Ferdinand III. who died in 1657, and was ſucceeded by the emperor Leopold, a ſevere, unamiable, and not very fortunate prince. He had two great powers to contend with, France on the one ſide, and the Turks on the other; and was a loſer in his war with both. France took from him Alſace, and many other frontier places of the empire; and the Turks would have taken Vienna, had not the ſiege been raiſed by John Sobieſki, king of Poland. Prince Eugene, of Savoy, was a young adventurer in arms about the year 1697; and being one of the imperial generals, gave the Turks the firſt checks they received in Hungary. The empire, however, could not have withſtood the power of France, had not the prince of Orange, afterwards king William III. of England, laid the foundation of the grand confederacy againſt the French power, the conſequences of which have been already deſcribed. The Hungarians, ſecretly encouraged by the French, and exaſperated by the

unfeeling tyranny of Leopold, were ſtill in arms, under the protection of the Porte, when that prince died in 1705.

He was ſucceeded by his ſon Joſeph, who put the electors of Cologne and Bavaria to the ban of the empire; but being very ill ſerved by prince Lewis of Baden, general of the empire, the French partly recovered their affairs, notwithſtanding their repeated defeats. The duke of Marlborough had not all the ſucceſs he expected or deſerved. Joſeph himſelf was ſuſpected of a deſign to ſubvert the Germanic liberties; and it was plain by his conduct, that he expected England ſhould take the labouring oar in the war, which was to be entirely carried on for his benefit. The Engliſh were diſguſted at his ſlowneſs and ſelfiſhneſs; but he died in 1711, before he had reduced the Hungarians; and leaving no male iſſue, he was ſucceeded in the empire by his brother, Charles VI. whom the allies were endeavouring to place on the throne of Spain, in oppoſition to Philip, duke of Anjou, grandſon to Lewis XIV.

When the peace of Utrecht took place in 1713, Charles at firſt made a ſhew as if he would continue the war, but found himſelf unable, now that he was forſaken by the Engliſh. He therefore was obliged to conclude a peace with France at Baden in 1714, that he might attend the progreſs of the Turks in Hungary, where they received a total defeat from prince Eugene, at the battle of Peterwaradin. They received another of equal importance from the ſame general in 1717, before Belgrade, which fell into the hands of the imperialiſts; and next year the peace of Paſſarowitz, between them and the Turks, was concluded. Charles employed every minute of his leiſure in making arrangements for encreaſing and preſerving his hereditary dominions in Italy and the Mediterranean. Happily for him, the crown of Britain devolved to the houſe of Hanover, an event which gave him a very deciſive weight in Europe, by the connections between George I. and II. in the empire. Charles was ſenſible of this, and carried matters with ſo high a hand, that about the years 1724 and 1725, a breach enſued between him and George I. and ſo unſteady was the ſyſtem of affairs all over Europe at that time, that the capital powers often changed their old alliances, and concluded new ones contradictory to their intereſt. Without entering into particulars, it is ſufficient to obſerve, that the ſafety of Hanover, and its aggrandizement, was the main object of the Britiſh court; as that of the emperor was the eſtabliſhment of the pragmatic ſanction, in favour of his daughter, the preſent empreſs queen, he having no male iſſue. Mutual conceſſions upon thoſe great points, reſtored a good underſtanding between George

George II. and the emperor Charles; and the elector of Saxony being prevailed upon by the purport of gaining the throne of Poland, relinquished the great claims he had upon the Austrian succession.

The emperor, after this, had very bad success in a war he entered into with the Turks, which he had undertaken chiefly to indemnify himself for the great sacrifices he had made in Italy to the princes of the house of Bourbon. Prince Eugene was then dead, and he had no general to supply his place. The system of France, however, under cardinal Fleury, happened at that time to be pacific, and she obtained for him, from the Turks, a better peace, than he had reason to expect. Charles, to keep the German and other European powers easy, had, before his death, given his eldest daughter, the present empress-queen, in marriage to the duke of Lorrain, a prince who could bring no accession of power to the Austrian family. Charles died in 1740.

He was no sooner in the grave, than all he had so long laboured for must have been overthrown, had it not been for the firmness of George II. The pragmatic sanction was attacked on all hands. The young king of Prussia entered, and conquered with an irresistible army, Silesia, which he said had been wrongfully dismembered from his family. The king of Spain and the elector of Bavaria set up claims directly incompatible with the pragmatic sanction, and in this they were joined by France; though all those powers had solemnly guarantied it. The imperial throne, after a considerable vacancy, was filled up by the elector of Bavaria, who took the title of Charles VII. in January 1742. The French poured their armies into Bohemia, where they took Prague; and the queen of Hungary, to take off the weight of Prussia, was forced to cede to that prince the most valuable part of the duchy of Silesia by a formal treaty.

Her youth, her beauty, and sufferings, and the noble fortitude with which she bore them, touched the hearts of the Hungarians, into whose arms she threw herself and her little son; and though they had been always remarkable for their disaffection to the house of Austria, they declared unanimously in her favour. Her generals drove the French out of Bohemia; and George II. at the head of an English and Hanoverian army, gained the battle of Dettingen, in 1743. Charles VII. was at this time miserable on the imperial throne, and would have given the queen of Hungary almost her own terms; but she haughtily and impoliticly rejected all accommodation, though advised to it by his Britannic majesty, her best, and indeed only friend. This obstinacy gave a colour for the king

of Pruſſia to invade Bohemia, under pretence of ſupporting the imperial dignity: but though he took Prague, and ſubdued the greateſt part of the kingdom, he was not ſupported by the French; upon which he abandoned all his conqueſts, and retired to Sileſia. This event confirmed the obſtinacy of the queen of Hungary, who came to an accommodation with the emperor, that ſhe might recover Sileſia. Soon after, his imperial majeſty, in the beginning of the year 1745, died; and the duke of Lorrain, then grand duke of Tuſcany, conſort to her Hungarian majeſty, after ſurmounting ſome difficulties, was choſen emperor.

The bad ſucceſs of the allies againſt the French and Bavarians in the Low Countries, and the loſs of the battle of Fontenoy, retarded the operations of the empreſs-queen againſt his Pruſſian majeſty. The latter beat the emperor's brother, prince Charles of Lorrain, who had before driven the Pruſſians out of Bohemia; and the conduct of the empreſs-queen was ſuch, that his Britannic majeſty thought proper to guarantee to him the poſſeſſion of Sileſia, as ceded by treaty. Soon after, his Pruſſian majeſty pretended that he had diſcovered a ſecret convention which had been entered into between the empreſs-queen, the empreſs of Ruſſia, and the king of Poland, as elector of Saxony, to ſtrip him of his dominions, and to divide them among themſelves. Upon this his Pruſſian majeſty, all of a ſudden, drove the king of Poland out of Saxony, defeated his troops, and took poſſeſſion of Dreſden; which he held till a treaty was made under the mediation of his Britannic majeſty, by which the king of Pruſſia acknowledged the duke of Lorrain, now great duke of Tuſcany, for emperor. The war, however, continued in the Low Countries, not only to the diſadvantage, but to the diſcredit of the Auſtrians and Dutch, till it was finiſhed by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in April 1748. By that treaty, Sileſia was once more guaranteed to the king of Pruſſia. It was not long before that monarch's jealouſies were renewed and verified; and the empreſs of Ruſſia's views falling in with thoſe of the empreſs-queen, and the king of Poland, who were unnaturally ſupported by France in their new ſchemes, a freſh war was kindled in the empire. The king of Pruſſia declared againſt the admiſſion of the Ruſſians into Germany, and his Britannic majeſty againſt that of the French. Upon thoſe two principles all former differences between theſe monarchs were forgotten, and the Britiſh parliament agreed to pay an annual ſubſidy of 670,000 l. to his Pruſſian majeſty during the continuance of the war, the flames of which were now rekindled with more fury than ever.

His

His Pruſſian majeſty once more broke into Saxony, defeated the imperial general Brown at the battle of Lowoſitz, forced the Saxons to lay down their arms, though almoſt impregnably fortified at Pirna, and the elector of Saxony fled to his regal dominions in Poland. After this, his Pruſſian majeſty was put to the ban of the empire; and the French poured, by one quarter, their armies, as the Ruſſians did by another, into the empire. The conduct of his Pruſſian majeſty on this occaſion is the moſt amazing that is to be met with in hiſtory. He broke once more into Bohemia with inconceivable rapidity, and defeated an army of near 100,000 Auſtrians, under general Brown, who was killed, as the brave marſhal Schwerin was on the ſide of the Pruſſians. He then beſieged Prague, and plied it with a moſt tremendous artillery; but juſt as he was beginning to imagine that his troops were invincible, they were defeated at Collin, by the Auſtrian general Daun, and obliged to raiſe the ſiege, and to fall back upon Eiſenach. The operations of the war now multiplied every day. The imperialiſts, under count Daun, were formed into excellent troops: but they were beat at the battle of Liſſa, and the Pruſſians took Breſlau, and obtained many other great advantages. The Ruſſians, after entering Germany, gave a new turn to the aſpect of the war; and the cautious, yet enterprizing genius of count Daun, laid his Pruſſian majeſty under infinite difficulties, notwithſtanding all his amazing victories. At firſt he defeated the Ruſſians at Zorndorff; but an attack made upon his army, in the night time, by count Daun, at Hockkirchen, had almoſt proved fatal to his affairs, though he retrieved them with admirable preſence of mind. He was obliged, however, to ſacrifice Saxony, for the ſafety of Sileſia; and it has been obſerved that few periods of hiſtory afford ſuch room for reflection as this campaign did; ſix ſieges were raiſed almoſt at the ſame time; that of Colberg, by the Ruſſians; that of Leipſic, by the duke of Deux-Ponts, who commanded the army of the empire; that of Dreſden, by Daun; thoſe of Neiſs, Coſel, and Torgau, by the Auſtrians.

Brevity obliges me to omit many capital ſcenes which paſſed at the ſame time in Germany, between the French, who were driven out of Hanover, and the Engliſh, or their allies. The operations on both ſides are of little importance to hiſtory, becauſe nothing was done that was deciſive, though extremely burdenſome and bloody to Great-Britain. It falls more within my plan to mention the ingratitude of the empreſs-queen to his Britannic majeſty, and his allies and generals, who were threatened with the ban of the empire. The Ruſſians had taken poſ-

ſeſſion of all the kingdom of Pruſſia, and laid ſiege to Colberg, the only port of his Pruſſian majeſty in the Baltic. Till then, he had entertained too mean an opiñion of the Ruſſians, but he ſoon found them by far the moſt formidable enemies he had, as they were advancing, under count Soltikoff, in a body of 100,000 men, to Sileſia. In this diſtreſs he acted with a courage and reſolution that bordered upon deſpair, but was, at laſt, totally defeated by the Ruſſians, with the loſs of 20,000 of his beſt men, in a battle near Frankfort. He became now the tennis-ball of fortune. Succeeding defeats ſeemed to announce his ruin, and all avenues towards peace were ſhut up. He had loſt, ſince the firſt of October 1756, the great marſhal Keith, and 40 brave generals, beſides thoſe who were wounded and made priſoners. At Landſhut the imperial general, Laudohn, defeated his army under Fouquet, on which he had great dependence, and thereby opened to the Auſtrians a ready gate into Sileſia. None but his Pruſſian majeſty would have thought of continuing the war under ſuch repeated loſſes; but every defeat he received ſeemed to give him freſh ſpirits. It is not perhaps very eaſy to account for the inactivity of his enemies after his defeat near Frankfort, but by the jealouſy which the imperial generals entertained of their Ruſſian allies. They had taken Berlin, and laid the inhabitants under pecuniary contributions; but towards the end of the campaign, he defeated the imperialiſts in the battle of Torgau, in which count Daun was wounded. This was the beſt fought action the king of Pruſſia had ever been engaged in, but it coſt him 10,000 of his beſt troops, and was attended with no great conſequences in his favour. New reinforcements which arrived every day from Ruſſia, the taking of Colberg by the Ruſſians, and of Schweidnitz by the Auſtrian, was on the point of compleating his ruin, when his moſt formidable enemy, the empreſs of Ruſſia, died, January 5, 1762; George II. had died on the 25th of October, 1760.

The deaths of thoſe illuſtrious perſonages were followed by great conſequences. The Britiſh miniſtry of George III. ſought to finiſh the war with honour, and the new emperor of Ruſſia recalled his armies. His Pruſſian majeſty was, notwithſtanding, ſo very much reduced by his loſſes, that the empreſs-queen, probably, would have compleated his deſtruction, had it not been for the wiſe backwardneſs of the other German princes, not to annihilate the houſe of Brandenburg. At firſt the empreſs-queen rejected all terms propoſed to her, and ordered 30,000 men to be added to her armies. The viſible backwardneſs of her generals to execute her orders, and the ſucceſſes obtained by his Pruſſian majeſty, at laſt prevailed

upon her to agree to an armiſtice, which was ſoon followed by the treaty of Hubertſburg, which ſecured to his Pruſſian majeſty the poſſeſſion of Sileſia. Upon the death of the emperor, her huſband, in 1765, her ſon Joſeph, who had been crowned king of the Romans in 1764, ſucceeded him in the empire. The imperial court has formed ſeveral arrangements of diſtinct ſovereignties in the Auſtrian family out of their Italian dominions, and ſeem at preſent to cultivate a pacific ſyſtem both in the empire and all over Europe. His imperial majeſty, though young, has diſcovered great talents for government. He has paid a viſit, incognito, and with moderate attendance, to Rome, and the principal courts of Italy, and has had a perſonal interview with his Pruſſian majeſty; all which circumſtances indicate that he is determined to be his own maſter, and not to be impoſed upon by his miniſters *.

The KINGDOM of PRUSSIA, formerly DUCAL PRUSSIA.

Situation, boundaries and extent. THIS country is bounded to the north by part of Samogitia; to the ſouth, by Poland Proper and Maſovia; to the eaſt, by part of Lithuania; and to the weſt, by Poliſh Pruſſia and the Baltic. Its greateſt length is about 160 miles, and breadth about 100.

Name, air, ſoil, produce, and rivers. The name of Pruſſia is evidently derived from the Boruſſi, the antient inhabitants of the country. The air, upon the whole, is wholeſome, and the ſoil fruitful in corn and other commodities, and affords plenty of pit-coal and fuel. Its animal productions are horſes, ſheep, deer, and game; bears, wolves, wild boars, and foxes. Its rivers and lakes are well ſtored with fiſhes; and amber, which is thought to be formed of an oil coagulated with vitriol, is found on its coaſts towards the Baltic. The woods furniſh the inhabitants with wax, honey, and pitch, beſides quantities of pot-aſhes. The rivers here ſometimes do damage by inundations, and the principal are, the Viſtula, the Pregel, the Memel or Mammel, the Paſſarge, and the Elbe.

* Maria Thereſa, queen of Hungary and Bohemia, empreſs-dowager of Germany, was born in 1717. Her ſon, Joſeph-Benedict-Auguſtus, was crowned king of the Romans in 1764, ſucceeded his father as emperor of Germany in 1765, married the ſame year the princeſs Joſephina-Maria, of Bavaria, who died in 1767. He had by his firſt wife (the princeſs of Parma) a daughter, Thereſa-Elizabeth, born in 1762.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. As Prussia, since the beginning of the present century, has become a most respectable power upon the continent of Europe, I shall, for the information of my readers, deviate from my usual plan, that I may bring before their eyes the whole of his Prussian majesty's territories, which lie scattered in other divisions of Germany, Poland, Swisserland, and the northern kingdoms, with their names; all which they will find in the following table.

Protestants.	Countries Names	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
Poland.	Prussia,	9,950	160	112	KONINGS. 54-53 N. Lat. 21-35 E. Lon.
Up. Saxony.	Brandenburg,	10,910	215	110	Berlin,
	Pomerania,	4,820	150	63	Camin,
	Swe. Pomerania,	2,991	90	48	Stetin,
Lo. Saxony.	Magdeburg,	1,535	63	50	Magdeburg,
	Halberstat,	450	42	17	Halberstat,
Silesia.	Crossen,	550	33	28	Crossen,
Westphalia.	Minden,	595	42	26	Minden,
	Ravensburg,	525	38	34	Ravensburg,
	Lingen,	120	15	11	Lingen,
	Cleves,	630	43	21	Cleves,
	Meurs,	35	10	6	Meurs,
	Mark,	980	52	43	Ham,
Netherlands.	Gelder,	360	34	23	Gelders,
Switzerland.	Neufchatel,	320	32	20	Neufchatel.
	Total—	34,771			

I shall here confine myself to Prussia as a kingdom, because his Prussian majesty's other dominions fall under the description of the countries where they lie.

The inhabitants of this kingdom were, by Dr. Busching, computed to amount to 635,998 persons capable of bearing arms: and if so (for I greatly doubt their computation is exaggerated) it must then be more populous than is generally imagined. Since the year 1719, it is computed that about 34,000 colonists have removed thitherward from France, Switzerland, and Germany; of which number, 17,000 were Saltzburghers. These emigrants have built 400 small villages, 11 towns, 86 seats, and 50 new churches; and have founded 1000 village schools, chiefly in that part of the country named Little Lithuania.

The manners of the inhabitants differ but little from those of the other inhabitants of Germany. The same may be said of their customs and diversions.

RELIGION, SCHOOLS, AND ACADEMIES.] The religion of Prussia is, thro' his present majesty's wisdom, very tolerant. The established religions are those of the Lutherans and Calvinists, but chiefly the former; but papists, anabaptists, and almost all other sects, are here tolerated. The country, as well as the towns, abounds in schools. An university was founded at Koningsberg in 1544, but we know of no very remarkable learned men that it has produced.

CITIES.] The kingdom of Prussia is divided into the German and Lithuanian departments; the former of which contains 280 parishes, and the latter 105.

Koningsberg, the capital of the whole kingdom, seated on the river Pregel, over which it has seven bridges, and is about 84 miles from Dantzic. According to Dr. Busching, this city is seven miles in circumference, and contains 3,800 houses, and about 60,000 inhabitants. This computation, I doubt, is a little exaggerated likewise, because it supposes, at an average, near sixteen persons in every house. Koningsberg has ever made a considerable figure in commerce and shipping; its river being navigable for ships; of which 493 foreign ones arrived here in the year 1752, besides 298 coasters; and that 373 floats of timber were, in the compass of that year, brought down the Pregel. This city, besides its college or university, which contains 38 professors, boasts of magnificent palaces, a town-house, and exchange; not to mention gardens and other embellishments. It has a good harbour and citadel, which is called Fredericsburg, and is a regular square.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] See Germany.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The present king of Prussia, by the assistance of an excellent police, has brought the commerce and manufactures of this country to a very flourishing state, which is daily improving. The manufactures of Prussia consist of glass, iron-work, paper, gunpowder, copper and brass mills; manufactures of cloth, camblet, linen, silk, stockings, and other articles. The inhabitants export variety of naval stores, amber, linseed, and hemp-seed, oatmeal, fish, mead, tallow, and caviar; and it is said that 500 ships are loaded every year with those commodities, chiefly from Koningsberg.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] His Prussian majesty is absolute through all his dominions, but is too wise to oppress his subjects, though he avails himself to the full of his power. The government of this kingdom is by a regency of four chancellors of state, viz. 1. The great master; 2. The great burgrave; 3. The great chancellor; and, 4. The great

great marſhal. There are alſo ſome other councils, and 37 bailiwicks. The ſtates conſiſt, 1. Of councellors of ſtate; 2. Of deputies from the nobility; and, 3. From the commons. Beſides theſe inſtitutions, his majeſty has erected a board for commerce and navigation.

REVENUES.] His Pruſſian majeſty, by means of the happy ſituation of his country, its inland navigation, and his own excellent regulations, derives an amazing revenue from this country, which, about a century and a half ago, was the ſeat of boors and barbariſm. It is ſaid, that amber alone brings him in 26,000 dollars annually. His other revenues ariſe from his demeſnes, his duties of cuſtoms and tolls, and the ſubſidies yearly granted by the ſeveral ſtates; but the exact ſum is not known, though we may conclude that it is very conſiderable, from the immenſe charges of the late war.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The regulations of this department, introduced by his majeſty, have a wonderful quick operation in forming his troops and recruiting his armies. Every regiment has a particular diſtrict aſſigned it, where the young men proper for bearing arms are regiſtered; and when occaſion offers, they join their regiment, and being incorporated with veterans, they ſoon become well diſciplined troops.

ARMS, AND ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.] The royal arms of Pruſſia are argent, an eagle diſplayed ſable, crowned, or, for Pruſſia. Azure, the imperial ſceptre, or, for Courland. Argent, an eagle diſplayed, gules, with ſemicircular wreaths, for the marquiſate of Brandenburg. To theſe are added the reſpective arms of the ſeveral provinces ſubject to the Pruſſian crown.

There are two orders of knighthood; the firſt, that of the black eagle, inſtituted by Frederic I. on the day of his coronation at Koningſberg, with this motto, SUUM CUIQUE. The ſovereign is always grand maſter, and the number of knights, excluſive of the royal family, is limited to thirty.

Next to this is the order of Merit, inſtituted by his preſent majeſty; the motto is POUR LE MERITE.

HISTORY.] The ancient hiſtory of Pruſſia, like that of other kingdoms, is loſt in the clouds of fiction and romance. The inhabitants appear to have been a brave and warlike people, and refuſed to ſubmit to the neighbouring princes, who, on pretence of converting them to chriſtianity, wanted to ſubject them to ſlavery. They made a noble ſtand againſt the kings of Poland, one of whom, Boleſlaus IV. was by them defeated and killed in 1163. They continued independent and pagans till the time of the cruſades, when the German knights

knights of the Teutonic order, about the year 1230, undertook their converſion by the edge of the ſword, but upon condition of having, as a reward, the property of the country, when conquered. A long ſeries of wars followed, in which the inhabitants of Pruſſia were almoſt extirpated by the religious knights, who in the thirteenth century, after committing the moſt incredible barbarities, peopled the country with Germans. After this vaſt waſte of blood, in 1466, a peace was concluded between the knights of the Teutonic order, and Caſimir, king of Poland, by which it was agreed, that the part now called Poliſh Pruſſia ſhould continue a free province, under the king's protection; and that the knights and the grand maſter ſhould poſſeſs the other part; but were to acknowledge themſelves vaſſals of Poland. This gave riſe to freſh wars, in which the knights endeavoured, but unſucceſsfully, to throw off their vaſſalage to Poland. In 1525, Albert, margrave of Brandenburgh, and the laſt grand maſter of the Teutonic order, concluded a peace at Cracow, by which the margrave was acknowledged duke of the eaſt part of Pruſſia, (formerly called, for that reaſon, Ducal Pruſſia) but to be held as a fief of Poland, and to deſcend to his male heirs; and upon failure of his male iſſue, to his brothers and their male heirs. Thus ended the ſovereignty of the Teutonic order in Pruſſia, after it had ſubſiſted near 300 years. In 1657, the elector Frederic-William, of Brandenburgh, deſervedly called the Great, had Ducal Pruſſia confirmed to him; and by the conventions of Welau and Bromberg, it was freed, by Caſimir, king of Poland, from vaſſalage; and he and his deſcendents were declared independent and ſovereign lords of this part of Pruſſia.

As the proteſtant religion had been introduced into this country by the margrave Albert, and the electors of Brandenburgh were now of that perſuaſion, the proteſtant intereſt favoured them ſo much, that Frederic, the ſon of Frederic-William the Great, was raiſed to the dignity of king of Pruſſia, in a ſolemn aſſembly of the ſtates of the empire, and ſoon after acknowledged as ſuch by all the powers of Chriſtendom. His grandſon, the preſent king of Pruſſia, in the memoirs of his family, gives us no high idea of this firſt king's talents for government, but expatiates on thoſe of his own father, Frederic-William, who ſucceeded in 1713. He certainly was a prince of ſtrong natural parts, and performed prodigious ſervices to his country, but too often at the expence of humanity, and the magnanimity which ought to adorn a king. At his death, which happened in 1740, he is ſaid to have left ſeven millions ſterling in his treaſury, which has enabled

enabled his ſon, by his wonderful victories, and the more wonderful reſources, by which he repaired his defeats, to become the admiration of the preſent age *.

THE KINGDOM OF BOHEMIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Length 300, Breadth 250, between 48 and 52 north latitude, 12 and 19 eaſt longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Saxony and Brandenburgh, on the north; by Poland and Hungary, on the eaſt; by Auſtria and Bavaria, on the ſouth; and by the palatinate of Bavaria, on the weſt; comprehending, 1. Bohemia Proper; 2. Sileſia; and, 3. Moravia.

Diviſions.	Chief towns.
1. Bohemia Proper, W. moſtly ſubject to the Ho. of Auſtria.	Prague, E. lon. 14-20. N. lat. 50. Koningſgratz, E. Glatz, E. ſubject to the king of Pruſſia. Egra, W.
2. Sileſia, eaſt, moſtly ſubject to the king of Pruſſia.	Breſlau, E. lon. 17. N. lat. 51-15. Glogaw, N. Croſſen, N. Jagendorf, S. Tropaw, S. ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria. Teſchen, S. ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria.
3. Moravia, S. entirely ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria.	Olmutz, E. lon. 16-45. N. lat. 49-40. Brin, middle. Igla, S. W.

SOIL AND AIR.] The air of Bohemia is not thought ſo wholeſome as that of the reſt of Germany, though its ſoil and produce are pretty much the ſame.

MOUNTAINS.] Bohemia, though almoſt ſurrounded with mountains, contains none of note or diſtinction.

METALS AND MINERALS.] This kingdom contains rich mines of ſilver, quickſilver, copper, iron, lead, ſulphur, and ſaltpetre. Its chief manufactures are linen, copper, iron, and glaſs.

* Frederic III. king of Pruſſia, and elector of Brandenburg, was born in 1712, married in 1733 to Elizabeth-Chriſtina, of Brunſwic-Wolfenbuttle, born in 1714, by whom he has no iſſue. The iſſue of the late William-Auguſtus, next brother to the king, are, Frederic-William, prince royal of Pruſſia, born in 1744, and married in 1765 to the princeſs Elizabeth-Ulrica, of Brunſwic. 2. Frederica-Sophia-Wilhelmina, born in 1751, and married in 1767 to the prince of Orange.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS AND DIVERSIONS.] We have no certain account of the preſent population of Bohemia; about 150 years ago, it was computed to contain 3,000,000 of inhabitants: they are thought at preſent not to be ſo numerous. The Bohemians, in their perſons, habits, and manners, reſemble the Germans. There is, among them, no middle ſtate of people; for every lord is a ſovereign, and every tenant a ſlave. The lower ranks are accuſed of being addicted to pilfering and ſuperſtition. But though the Bohemians, at preſent, are not remarkable either for arts or arms, yet they formerly diſtinguiſhed themſelves as the moſt intrepid aſſerters of civil and religious liberty in Europe; witneſs the early introduction of the reformed religion into their country, when it was ſcarcely known in any other, the many glorious defeats they gave to the Auſtrian power, and their generous ſtruggles for independency. Their virtues may be conſidered as the cauſes of their decay; as no means were left unemployed by their deſpotic maſters for breaking their ſpirit: though it is certain, their internal jealouſies and diſſentions greatly contributed to their ſubjection. Their cuſtoms and diverſions are the ſame as in Germany.

RELIGION.] Though popery is the eſtabliſhed religion of Bohemia, yet many of the Moravians have embraced a viſionary unintelligible proteſtantiſm, if it deſerves that name, which they propagate, by their zealous miſſionaries, through all parts of the globe; ſome of whom have lately made proſelytes in Great-Britain: they have a meeting-houſe in London, and have obtained an act of parliament for a ſettlement in the plantations.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] Prague is the only Bohemian archbiſhopric. The biſhoprics are Koningſgratz, Breſlau, and Olmutz.

LANGUAGE.] The proper language of the Bohemians is a dialect of the Sclavonian, but they generally ſpeak German and High Dutch.

UNIVERSITY.] The only univerſity in Bohemia is that of Prague.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] Prague, the capital of Bohemia, is one of the fineſt and moſt magnificent cities in Europe, and famous for its noble bridge. Its circumference is ſo large, that the grand Pruſſian army, in its laſt ſiege, never could completely inveſt it. For this reaſon it is able to make a vigorous defence in caſe of a regular ſiege. The inhabitants, however, are thought not to be proportioned to its capaciouſneſs, being thought not to exceed 70,000 Chriſtians, and

about 13,000 Jews. It contains 92 churches and chapels, and 40 cloiſters. It is a place of little or no trade, and therefore the middling inhabitants are not wealthy; but the Jews are ſaid to carry on a large commerce in jewels. Bohemia contains many other towns, ſome of which are fortified, but they are remarkable neither for ſtrength nor manufactures. Olmutz is the capital of Moravia: it is well fortified, and has manufactures of woollen, iron, glaſs, paper, and gunpowder.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] See Germany.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The forms, and only the forms, of the old Bohemian conſtitution ſtill ſubſiſt; but the government, under the empreſs-queen, is deſpotic. Their ſtates are compoſed of the clergy, nobility, gentry, and repreſentatives of towns. Their ſovereigns, of late, have not been fond of provoking them by ill uſage, and they have a general averſion towards the Auſtrians. This kingdom is frequently deſcribed as part of Germany, but with little reaſon, for it is not in any of the nine circles, nor does it contribute any thing towards the forces or revenues of the empire, nor is it ſubject to any of its laws. What gives ſome colour to this miſtake is, that the king of Bohemia is the firſt ſecular elector of the empire, and their kings have been elected emperors of Germany for many years.

REVENUES.] The revenues of Bohemia are whatever the ſovereign is pleaſed to exact from the ſtates of the kingdom, when they are annually aſſembled at Prague. They may perhaps amount to 500,000 l. a year.

ARMS.] The arms of Bohemia are, argent, a lion gules, the tail moved, and paſſed in ſaltier, crowned languid, and armed, or.

HISTORY.] The Bohemian nobility uſed to elect their own princes, though the emperors of Germany ſometimes impoſed a king upon them, and at length uſurped that throne themſelves. In 1414 John Huſs and Jerome of Prague, two of the firſt reformers, were burnt at the council of Conſtance, though the emperor of Germany had given them his protection.

This occaſioned an inſurrection in Bohemia: the people of Prague threw the emperor's officers out of the windows of the council chambers; and the famous Ziſca aſſembling an army of 40,000 Bohemians, defeated the emperor's forces in ſeveral engagements, and drove the imperialiſts out of the kingdom. The diviſions of the Huſſites among themſelves, enabled the emperors to keep poſſeſſion of Bohemia, though an attempt was made to throw off the imperial yoke, by electing a proteſtant king in the perſon of the prince Palatine, ſon-in-law to James

James I. of England. The misfortunes of this prince are well known. He was driven from Bohemia by the emperor's generals, and being ſtript of his other dominions, was forced to depend on the court of England for a ſubſiſtence; and the Bohemians, ſince that time, have remained ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria.

HUNGARY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	300	between	17 and 23 eaſt longitude.
Breadth	200		45 and 49 north latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] THAT part of Hungary which belongs to the houſe of Auſtria (for it formerly included Tranſylvania, Sclavonia, Croatia, Morlachia, Servia, Walachia, Temeſwar, and other countries) is bounded by Poland, on the north; by Tranſylvania and Walachia, eaſt; by Sclavonia, ſouth; and by Auſtria and Moravia, weſt.

The general diviſion of Hungary, is into Upper, by ſome called Proper, and Lower Hungary; the former lying north, and the latter ſouth of the Danube. Their chief towns being Preſburg and Buda.

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air, and conſequently the climate, of the ſouthern parts of Hungary, is found to be unhealthful, owing to its numerous lakes, ſtagnated waters, and marſhes; the northern parts being mountainous and barren, the air is ſweet and wholeſome. No country in the world can boaſt a richer ſoil, than that plain which extends 300 miles from Preſburg to Belgrade, and produces corn, graſs, eſculent plants, tobacco, ſaffron, aſparagus, melons, hops, pulſe, millet, buck-wheat, delicious wine, fruits of various kinds, peaches, mulberry-trees, cheſnuts, and wood: corn is in ſuch plenty, that it ſells for one ſixth part of its price in England.

RIVERS.] Theſe are the Danube, Drave, Teyſſe, Meriſh, and the Temes.

WATER.] Hungary contains ſeveral lakes, particularly four among the Carpathian mountains of conſiderable extent, and abounding with fiſh. The Hungarian baths and mineral waters are eſteemed the moſt ſovereign of any in Europe; but their magnificent buildings, raiſed by the Turks when in poſ-

ſeſſion of the country, particularly thoſe of Buda, are ſuffered to go to decay.

MOUNTAINS.] The Carpathian mountains, which divide Hungary from Poland on the north, are the chief in Hungary, though many detached mountains are found in the country. Their tops are generally covered with wood, and on their ſides grow the richeſt grapes in the world.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Hungary is remarkably well ſtocked with both. It abounds not only with gold and ſilver mines, but with plenty of excellent copper, vitriol, iron, orpiment, quickſilver, cryſocolla, and terra ſigillata. Before Hungary became the ſeat of deſtructive wars, between Turks and Chriſtians, or fell under the power of the houſe of Auſtria, thoſe mines were furniſhed with proper works and workmen, and produced vaſt revenues to the native princes. The Hungarian gold and ſilver employed mint-houſes, not only in Hungary, but in Germany, and the continent of Europe; but all thoſe mines are now greatly diminiſhed in their value, their work being deſtroyed or demoliſhed, ſome of them however ſtill ſubſiſt, to the great emolument of the natives.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] Hungary is remarkable for a fine breed of horſes, generally mouſe coloured, and highly eſteemed by military officers, ſo that great numbers of them are exported. There is a remarkable breed of large rams in the neighbourhood of Preſburg. Its other vegetable and animal productions are in general the ſame with thoſe of Germany, and the neighbouring countries. The Hungarian wines, however, particularly Tockay, are preferable to thoſe of any other country, at leaſt in Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS AND DIVERSIONS.] It was late before the northern barbarians drove the Romans out of Hungary, and ſome of the deſcendants of their legionary forces, are ſtill to be diſtinguiſhed in the inland parts, by their ſpeaking Latin. Be that as it will, before the Turks got poſſeſſion of Conſtantinople, we have reaſon to think, that Hungary was one of the moſt populous and powerful kingdoms in Europe; and if the houſe of Auſtria ſhould give the proper encouragement to the inhabitants to repair their works, and clear their fens, it might become ſo again in about a century hence. Both Hungaries at preſent, excluſive of Tranſylvania, and Croatia, are thought to contain about two millions and a half of inhabitants. The Hungarians have manners peculiar to themſelves. They pique themſelves on being deſcended from thoſe heroes, who formed the bulwark of Chriſtendom againſt the infidels. In their perſons

perſons they are well made. Their fur-caps, their cloſe-bodied coats, girded by a faſh, and their cloak or mantle, which is ſo contrived, as to buckle under one arm, ſo that the right hand may be always at liberty, gives them an air of military dignity. The men ſhave their beards, but preſerve their whiſkers on their upper lips. Their uſual arms are a broad ſword, and a kind of pole-ax, beſides their fire-arms. The ladies are reckoned handſomer than thoſe of Auſtria, and their ſable dreſs with ſleeves ſtrait to their arms, and their ſtays faſtened before with gold, pearl, or diamond little buttons, are well known to the French and Engliſh ladies. Both men and women, in what they call the mine towns, wear fur and even ſheep-ſkin dreſſes. The inns upon the roads are moſt miſerable hovels, and even thoſe ſeldom to be met with. Their hogs, which yield the chief animal food for their peaſants, and their poultry, live in the ſame apartment with their owners. The gout, and the fever, owing to the unwholeſomeneſs of the air, are the predominant diſeaſes in Hungary. The natives in general are indolent, and leave trade and manufactures to the Greeks and other ſtrangers, ſettled in their country, the flatneſs of which renders travelling commodious, either by land or water. The diverſions of the inhabitants are of the warlike and athletic kind. They are in general a brave and magnanimous people. Their anceſtors, even ſince the beginning of the preſent century, were ſo jealous of their liberties, that rather than be tyrannized over, by the houſe of Auſtria, they often ſubmitted to that of Othman; but their fidelity to the preſent empreſs-queen, notwithſtanding the provocations they received from her houſe, will be always remembered to their honour.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion of the Hungarians, is the Roman-catholic, though the major part of the inhabitants are proteſtants or Greeks, and the preſent empreſs-queen, out of gratitude for their ſervices, has reſtored them to the full exerciſe of their civil and religious liberties.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] The archbiſhoprics are Preſburg, Gran and Colocza. The biſhoprics Great Waradin, Agria, Veſprin, Raab, and five churches.

LANGUAGE.] As the Hungarians are mixed with Germans, Sclavonians and Walachians, they have a variety of dialects, and one of them is ſaid to approach near the Hebrew. The better and the middlemoſt rank ſpeak German, and almoſt all of them Latin, either pure or barbarous.

UNIVERSITIES.] In the univerſities (if they can be properly ſo called) of Firnan, Buda, Raab, and Caſcham, are profeſſors of the ſeveral arts and ſciences, who are commonly Jeſuits; ſo that the Lutherans, and Calviniſts, who are more

numerous than the Roman-catholics in Hungary, go to German and other univerſities.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } The artificial curioſities of this country, conſiſt of its bridges, baths and mines. The bridge of Eſſek built over the Danube, and Drave, is, properly ſpeaking, a continuation of bridges, five miles in length, fortified with towers at certain diſtances. It was an important paſs during the wars between the Turks and Hungarians. A bridge of boats runs over the Danube, half a mile long, between Buda and Peſt; and about twenty Hungarian miles diſtance from Belgrade, is the remains of a bridge, erected by the Romans, adjudged to be the moſt magnificent of any in the world. The baths and mines here have nothing to diſtinguiſh them from the like works in other countries.

One of the moſt remarkable natural curioſities of Hungary, is a cavern in a mountain near Szelitze; the aperture of this cavern, which fronts the ſouth, is eighteen fathom high, and eight broad; its ſubterraneous paſſages conſiſt entirely of ſolid rock, ſtretching away further ſouth than has been yet diſcovered; as far as it is practicable to go, the height is found to be 50 fathoms, and the breadth 26. Many other wonderful particulars are related of this cavern, which is an article in natural philoſophy. Aſtoniſhing rocks are common in Hungary, and ſome of its churches are of admirable architecture.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } Theſe are greatly decayed from their antient magnificence, but many of the fortifications are ſtill very ſtrong, and kept in good order. Preſburg is fortified. In it the Hungarian regalia are kept. Buda, formerly the capital of Hungary, retains little of its antient magnificence, but its ſtrength and fortifications, and the ſame may be ſaid of Peſt, which lies on the oppoſite ſide of the Danube. Raab is likewiſe a ſtrong city, as is Gran and Comorra. Tockay has been already mentioned for the excellency of its wines.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Having already mentioned the natural produce of the country, all I can add is, that the chief manufactures and exports of the natives, conſiſt of metals, drugs and ſalt.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Hungarians diſlike the term of queen, and call their preſent ſovereign King Tereſa. Their government preſerves the remains of many checks upon the regal power. They have a diet or parliament, a Hungary-office, which reſembles our chancery, and which reſides at Vienna; as the ſtadtholder's council, which comes pretty near the Britiſh privy-council, but has a municipal juriſdiction,

jurisdiction, does at Presburg. Every royal town has its senate; and the Gespan chairs resemble our justices of the peace. Besides this, they have an exchequer and nine chambers, and other subordinate courts.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The empress-queen can bring to the field, at any time, 50,000 Hungarians in their own country, but seldom draws out of it above 10,000; these are generally light-horse, and well known to modern times by the name of hussars. They are not near so large as the German horse; and therefore the hussars stand upon their short stirrups when they strike. Their expedition and alertness has been found so serviceable in war, that the greatest powers in Europe have troops that go by the same name. Their foot are called Heydukes, and wear feathers in their caps, according to the number of enemies they pretend to have killed: both horse and foot are an excellent militia, very good at a persuit, or ravaging and plundering a country, but not equal to regular troops in a pitched battle.

COINS.] Hungary was formerly remarkable for its coinage, and there are still extant in the cabinets of the curious, a complete series of coins of their former kings. More Greek and Roman medals have been discovered in this country, than perhaps in any other in Europe.

ARMS.] The empress-queen, for armorial ensigns, bears quarterly, barwise argent, and gules of eight pieces.

HISTORY.] The Huns, after subduing this country, communicated their name to it, being then part of the ancient Pannonia. Hungary was formerly an assemblage of different states, and the first who assumed the title of king, was Stephen, about the year 1000, when he embraced christianity. About the year 1310, king Charles Robert ascended the throne, and subdued Bulgaria, Servia, Crontea, Dalmatia, Sclavonia, and many other provinces; but many of those conquests were afterwards reduced by the Venetians, Turks, and other powers. In the 15th century, Hunniades, who was guardian to the infant king Ladislaus, bravely repulsed the Turks, who invaded Hungary; and upon the death of Ladislaus, the Hungarians in 1438, raised Matthius Corvinus, son to Hunniades, to their throne. Lewis, king of Hungary, in 1526, was killed in a battle, fighting against Solyman, emperor of the Turks. This battle had almost proved fatal to Hungary, but archduke Ferdinand, brother to the emperor Charles V. having married the sister of Lewis, he claimed the title of Hungary, in which he succeeded, with some difficulty, and that kingdom has ever since belonged to the house of Austria, though by its constitution its crown

ought to be elective. For the reſt of the Hungarian hiſtory, ſee Germany.

TRANSYLVANIA, SCLAVONIA, AND CROATIA.

I HAVE thrown thoſe countries under one diviſion, for ſeveral reaſons, particularly becauſe we have no preciſe, or authentic account of their extent and boundaries; and it is very difficult to fix what part of them belongs to the houſe of Auſtria, and what to the Turks, or other nations. The beſt account therefore I can give of them is as follows: Tranſylvania is generally reckoned to belong to Hungary, and is bounded on the north by the Carpathian mountains, which divide it from Poland; on the eaſt by Moldavia and Walachia; on the ſouth by Walachia; and on the weſt by Upper and Lower Hungary. It lies between 22 and 25 degrees of eaſt longitude, and 45 and 48 of north latitude. Its length is extended about 180, and its breadth 120 miles; but ſurrounded on all ſides by high mountains. Its produce, vegetables, and animals, are almoſt the ſame with thoſe of Hungary. The air is wholeſome and temperate; but their wine, though good, is not equal to the Hungarian. Its chief city is Hermanſtat, and its interior government ſtill partakes greatly of the ancient feudal ſyſtem, being compoſed of many independent ſtates and princes. They owe but a nominal ſubjection to the Auſtrians, who leave them in poſſeſſion of all their privileges. Papiſts, Lutherans, Calviniſts, Socinians, Arians, Greeks, Mahometans, and other ſectaries, here enjoy their ſeveral religions. Tranſylvania is thought to add but little to the Auſtrian revenue, though it exports ſome metals and ſalt to Hungary. Hermanſtat is a large, ſtrong, and well-built city, as is Clauſemburg and Wiſſemburg. All ſorts of proviſions here are very cheap, and excellent in their kinds. The ſeat of government is at Hermanſtat, and the governor is aſſiſted by a council made up of Roman-catholics, Calviniſts, and Lutherans. The diet, or parliament, meets by ſummons, and receives the commands of the ſovereign, to whom of late they appear to have been entirely devoted. They have a liberty of making remonſtrances and repreſentations in caſe of grievances.

Tranſylvania is part of the ancient Dacia, the inhabitants of which long employed the Roman arms, before they could be ſubdued. Their deſcendants retain the ſame military character. The population of the country is not aſcertained, but if the Tranſylvanians can bring to the field, as has been aſſerted,

asserted, 30,000 troops, the whole number of inhabitants must be considerable. At present its military force is reduced to six regiments of 1,500 men each; but it is well known that, during the last two wars, in which the house of Austria was engaged, the Transylvanians did great services. Hermanstat is its only bishopric, and the Transylvanians at present seem to trouble themselves little, either about learning or religion, though the Roman-catholic is the established church. The various revolutions in their government prove their impatience under slavery; and though the treaty of Carlowitz in 1699, gave the sovereignty of Transylvania to the house of Austria, yet the natives enjoy what we may call a loyal aristocracy, which their sovereigns do not think proper to invade.

Sclavonia lies between the 16th and 22d degrees of east longitude, and the 45th and 47th of north latitude. It is thought to be about 200 miles in length, and 60 in breadth, and is bounded by the Drave on the north, by the Danube on the east, by the Save on the south, and by Kiria in Austria on the west. The reason why Hungary, Transylvania, Sclavonia, and the other nations, subject to the house of Austria in those parts, contain a surprizing variety of people, differing in name, language, and manners, is because liberty here made its last stand against the Roman arms, which by degrees forced the remains of the different nations they had conquered into those quarters. The thickness of the woods, the rapidity of rivers, and the strength of the country favoured their resistance; and their descendents, notwithstanding the power of the Turks, the Austrians, the Hungarians, and the Poles, still retain the same spirit of independency. Without minding the arrangements made by the sovereigns of Europe, they are quiet under the government that leaves them most at liberty. That they are generous, as well as brave, appears from their attachment to the house of Austria, which till the last two wars, never was sensible of their value and valour; insomuch, that it is well known that they preserved the pragmatic sanction, and kept the imperial crown in that family. The Sclavonians formerly gave so much work to the Roman arms, that it is thought the word Slave took its original from them, on account of the great numbers of them who were carried into bondage, so late as the reign of Charlemaigne. Though Sclavonia yields neither in beauty nor fertility to Hungary and Transylvania, yet the ravages of war are still visible in the face of the country, which lies in a great measure unimproved. The Sclavonians, from their ignorance, perhaps, are zealous Roman-catholics, tho' Greeks and Jews are tolerated. Here we meet with two

biſhoprics, that of Roſega, which is the capital of the country, and Zagrab, which lies on the Drave; but we know of no univerſities. The inhabitants are compoſed of Servians, Radzians, Croats, Walachians, Germans, Hungarians, and a vaſt number of other people, whoſe names were never known even to the Auſtrians themſelves, but from the military muſter-rolls, when they poured their troops into the field during the two laſt wars.

Croatia lies between the 15th and 17th degrees of eaſt longitude, and the 45th and 47th of north latitude. It is 80 miles in length, and 70 in breadth. The manners, government, religion, language, and cuſtoms, of the Croats, are ſimilar to thoſe of the Sclavonians and Tranſylvanians, who are their neighbours. They are excellent irregular troops, and as ſuch are famed in modern hiſtory, under the name of Pandours, and various other deſignations. The truth is, the houſe of Auſtria finds its intereſt in ſuffering them, and the neighbouring nations, to live in their own manner. Their towns are blended with each other, there ſcarcely being any diſtinction of boundaries. Zagrab (which I have already mentioned) for inſtance, is thought to be the capital of Croatia. All the ſovereignty exerciſed over them by the Auſtrians, ſeems to conſiſt in the military arrangements for bringing them occaſionally into the field.

As to the other Auſtrian dominions, they are ſo intermixed with thoſe of the Venetians, Turks, and other nations, that it is impoſſible to ſeparate them, and they ſhall be mentioned occaſionally.

POLAND, including LITHUANIA.

Situation and extent.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 700	between	16 and 34 eaſt longitude.
Breadth 680		46 and 57 north latitude.

Boundaries.] It is very difficult, if not impoſſible, to aſcertain with any preciſion, the real extent of the Poliſh dominions, through the uncertain poſſeſſion of its extremities by the Turks, Tartars, Coſſacs, and other nations. It is bounded on the north by Livonia, Muſcovy, and the Baltic; on the eaſt by Muſcovy, and Little Tartary; on the ſouth by Turkey and Hungary; and on the weſt by Germany.

Divisions.] In a work like this, the reader cannot expect to be entertained with a vaſt variety of names that form the diviſions of this great country. They are not well known even

even to the natives themſelves, and a minute account of them can be of no uſe either to ſtrangers or natives; but the chief obſtacle to ſuch an undertaking, ariſes from the different claims of the great powers of the north. The geographers, for inſtance, have placed the kingdom of Pruſſia in Poland, tho' it is well known that his Pruſſian majeſty is now the ſole ſovereign of that part of it called Ducal Pruſſia, as has been already mentioned. In like manner Courland is comprehended under Poland, though her Ruſſian majeſty has the entire diſpoſal of that duchy. The beſt general diviſion therefore of Poland is as follows.

	Poland.	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.	
Papiſts.	Lithuania,	64,800	333	310	Wilna	
	Podolia,	29,000	360	120	Caminieck	
	Volhinia,	25,000	305	150	Lucko	
	Red Ruſſia,	25,200	232	185	Lemburg	
	Great Poland,	19,200	208	180	Gneſna	
	Little Poland,	18,000	230	130	Cracow	
	Poleſia,	14,000	186	97	Breſſici	
	Maſovia,	8,400	152	90	WARSAW	E. lon. 21-5. N. lat. 52-15.
	Samogitia,	8,000	155	98	Raſiem	
	Pruſſia Royal,	6,400	118	104	Elbing	
	Polachia,	4,000	133	42	Bielh	
Proteſtants.	Courland, ſubject to Ruſſia,	4,414	174	80	Mittaw.	
	Total—	226,414				

Dantzic, Thorn, and Elbing, in Pruſſia Royal, are free cities, under the protection of Poland.

NAME.] It is generally thought that Poland takes its name from Polu, or Pole, a Sclavonian word ſignifying a country fit for hunting, for which none was formerly more proper, on account of its plains, woods, wild beaſts, and game of every kind.

CLIMATE.] The air of Poland is ſuch as may be expected from ſo extenſive but level a climate. In the north parts it is cold but healthy. The Carpathian mountains, which ſeparate Poland from Hungary, are covered with everlaſting ſnow, which has been known to fall in the midſt of ſummer. Upon the whole, however, the climate of Poland is temperate, and far from being ſo unſettled, either in winter or ſummer, as might be ſuppoſed from ſo northerly a ſituation.

SOIL, PRODUCE AND WATERS.] Poland is in general a level country, and the ſoil is fertile in corn, as appears from the vaſt quantities that are ſent from thence down the Viſtula, to Dantzic, and are bought up by the Dutch, and other nations. The paſtures of Poland, eſpecially in Podolia, are rich beyond expreſſion; and it is ſaid one can hardly ſee the cattle

cattle that graze in the meadows. Here are mines of ſilver, copper, iron, ſalt and coals; the interior parts of Poland contain foreſts, which furniſh timber in ſo great quantities, that it is employed in houſe-building, inſtead of bricks, ſtone, and tiles. Various kinds of fruits and herbs, and ſome grapes are produced in Poland, and are excellent when they meet with culture, but their wine ſeldom or never comes to perfection. Poland produces various kinds of clays fit for pipes and earthen ware. The water of many ſprings is boiled into ſalt. The virtues of a ſpring, in the palatinate of Cracow, which encreaſes and decreaſes with the moon, are ſaid to be wonderful for the preſervation of life, and it is reported, that the neighbouring inhabitants commonly live to 100, and ſome of them to 150 years of age. This ſpring is inflammable, and by applying a torch to it, it flames like the ſubtleſt ſpirit of wine. The flame however dances on the ſurface, without heating the water, and if neglected to be extinguiſhed, which it may eaſily be, it communicates itſelf by ſubterraneous conduits, to the roots of trees, in a neighbouring wood, which it conſumes; and about 35 years ago, the flames are ſaid to have laſted for three years, before they could be entirely extinguiſhed.

RIVERS.] The chief rivers of Poland are, the Viſtula or Weyſel, the Neiſter, Neiper or Boriſthenes, the Bog, and the Dwina.

LAKES.] The chief of the few lakes contained in Poland, is Gopto, in the palatinate of Byzeſty and Birals, or the White Lake, and is ſaid to dye thoſe who waſh in it of a ſwarthy complexion.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY LAND AND WATER. } The vegetable productions of Poland have been already mentioned under the article of SOIL, though ſome are peculiar to itſelf, particularly a kind of manna (if it can be called a vegetable) which in May and June the inhabitants ſweep into ſieves with the dew, and it ſerves for food dreſſed various ways.

The foreſts of Warſovia or Maſovia, contain plenty of uri, or buffaloes, whoſe fleſh the Poles powder, and eſteem it an excellent diſh. Horſes, wolves, boars, elks, and deer, all of them wild, are common in the Poliſh foreſts; and there is a ſpecies of wild horſes and aſſes, that the nobility of the Ukrain, as well as natives, are fond of. A kind of wolf, reſembling a hart, with ſpots on his belly and legs, is found here, and affords the beſt furs in the country; but the elk, which is common in Poland, as well as in ſome other northern countries, is a very extraordinary animal. The fleſh of the Poliſh elk forms the moſt delicious part of their greateſt feaſts. His body

body is of the deer make, but much thicker and longer; the legs high, the feet broad and cloven, the horns large, rough, and broad, like a wild goat's. Naturaliſts have obſerved, that upon diſſecting an elk, there was found in its head ſome large flies, with its brains almoſt eaten away: and it is an obſervation, ſufficiently atteſted, that in the large woods and wilderneſſes of the north, this poor animal is attacked, towards the winter chiefly, by a larger ſort of flies, that, through its ears, attempt to take up their winter quarters in its head. This perſecution is thought to affect the elk with the falling-ſickneſs, by which means it is taken, which would otherwiſe prove no eaſy matter.

Poland produces a creature called bohac: it reſembles a guinea-pig, but they ſeem to be the beaver kid. They are noted for digging holes in the ground, which they enter in October, and do not come out, except occaſionally for food, till April: they have ſeparate apartments for their proviſions, lodgings, and their dead; they live together by 10 or 12 in a herd. We do not perceive that Poland contains any ſpecies of birds peculiar to itſelf; only we are told that the quails there have green legs, and that their fleſh is reckoned to be unwholeſome. Poland contains no particular ſpecies of fiſh that we know of.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. From what has been ſaid of the extent of Poland, it is impoſſible to form an eſtimate of the numbers of its inhabitants: they undoubtedly, before the breaking out of the preſent war, were very numerous; but they are ſo little known, even at preſent, that numbers of them, in remoter parts, continue ſtill to be heathens, or have very imperfect notions of Chriſtianity. Some have ſuppoſed Poland and Lithuania to contain 15,000,000 of inhabitants, and to be at leaſt as populous as France. When we conſider that the Poles have no colonies, and ſometimes enjoy long tracts of peace, and that no fewer than 2,000,000 of Jews are ſaid to inhabit their villages, excluſive of thoſe who live in their cities and towns, perhaps this calculation is not exaggerated. The Poles, in their perſons, make a noble appearance; their complexion is fair, and their ſhapes are well proportioned. They are brave, honeſt, and hoſpitable; and their women ſprightly, yet modeſt, and ſubmiſſive to their huſbands.

The diverſions of the Poles are warlike and manly; vaulting, dancing, and riding the great horſe, hunting, ſkating, bull and bear-baiting. They uſually travel on horſeback: a Poliſh gentleman will not travel a ſtone's-throw without his

horſe; and they are ſo hardy, that they will ſleep upon the ground, without any bed or covering, in froſt and ſnow. The Poles never live above ſtairs, and their apartments are not united; the kitchen is on one ſide, the ſtable on another, the dwelling-houſe on the third, and the gate on the front. They content themſelves with a few ſmall beds, and if any lodge at their houſes, they muſt carry their bedding with them. When they ſit down to dinner or ſupper, they have their trumpets and other muſic playing, and a number of gentlemen to wait on them at table, all ſerving with the moſt profound reſpect; for the nobles who are poor frequently find themſelves under the neceſſity of ſerving them that are rich; but their patron uſually treats them with civility, and permits the eldeſt to eat with him at his table, with his cap off; and every one of them has his peaſant boy to wait on him, maintained by the maſter of the family. At an entertainment, the Poles lay neither knives, forks, nor ſpoons, but every gueſt brings them with him; and they no ſooner ſit down to table, than all the doors are ſhut, and not opened till the company return home. It is uſual for a nobleman to give his ſervant part of his meat, which he eats as he ſtands behind him, and to let him drink out of the ſame cup with himſelf: but this is the leſs extraordinary, if it be conſidered, that theſe ſervants are eſteemed his equal. Bumpers are much in faſhion, both here and in Ruſſia; nor will they eaſily excuſe any perſon from pledging them. It would exceed the bounds of this work to deſcribe the grandeur and equipages of the Poliſh nobility, and the reader may figure to himſelf an idea of all that is faſtidious, ceremonious, expenſive, and ſhewy in life, to have any conception of their way of living. They carry the pomp of their attendance, when they appear abroad, even to ridicule, for it is not unuſual to ſee the lady of a Poliſh grandee, beſides a coach and ſix, with a great number of ſervants, attended by an old gentleman-uſher, an old gentlewoman for her governante, and a dwarf of each ſex to hold up her train; and if it be night, her coach is ſurrounded by a great number of flambeaux. The figure of all their pomp, however, is proportioned to their eſtates, but each perſon goes as far as his income can afford.

The Poles are divided into nobles, citizens, and peaſants. Though Poland has its princes, counts, and barons, yet the whole body of the nobility are naturally on a level, except the difference that ariſes from the public poſts they enjoy. Hence all who are of noble birth call one another brothers. They do not value titles of honour, but think a gentleman of Poland is the higheſt appellation they can enjoy. They enjoy many

many conſiderable privileges, and indeed the boaſted Poliſh liberty is properly limited to them alone, partly by the indulgence of former kings, but more generally from ancient cuſtom and preſcription. They have a power of life and death over their tenants and vaſſals; pay no taxes; are ſubject to none but the king; may chuſe whom they will for their king, and lay him under what reſtraints they pleaſe by the *pacta conventa*; and none but they, and the burghers of ſome particular towns, can purchaſe lands. In ſhort, they are almoſt entirely independent, enjoying many other privileges entirely incompatible with a well regulated ſtate; but if they engage in trade, they forfeit their nobility. Theſe great privileges make the Poliſh gentry powerful; many of them have large territories, with a deſpotic power, as we have ſaid, over their tenants, whom they call their ſubjects, and transfer or aſſign over with the lands, cattle, and furniture. Some of them have eſtates of from five to thirty leagues in extent, and are alſo hereditary ſovereigns of cities, with which the king has no concern. One of their nobles poſſeſſes above 4000 towns and villages. Some of them can raiſe 8 or 10,000 men. The houſe of a nobleman is a ſecure aſylum for perſons who have committed any crime; for none muſt preſume to take them from thence by force. They have their horſe and foot guards, which are upon duty day and night before their palaces and in their anti-chambers, and march before them when they go abroad. They make an extraordinary figure when they come to the diet, ſome of them having 5000 guards and attendants; and their debates in the ſenate are often determined by the ſword. When great men have ſuits at law, the diet, or rather tribunals, decide them; yet the execution of the ſentence muſt be left to the longeſt ſword; for the juſtice of the kingdom is commonly too weak for the grandees. Sometimes they raiſe 5 or 6000 men of a ſide, plunder and burn one another's cities, and beſiege caſtles and forts; for they think it below them to ſubmit to the ſentence of judges, without a field battle. As to the peaſants, they are born ſlaves, and have no notion of liberty. If one lord kills the peaſant of another, he is not capitally convicted, but only obliged to make reparation, by another peaſant equal in value. A nobleman who is deſirous of cultivating a piece of land, builds a little wooden houſe, in which he ſettles a peaſant and his family, giving him a cow, two horſes, a certain number of geeſe, hens, &c. and as much corn as is ſufficient to maintain him the firſt year, and to improve for his own future ſubſiſtence and the advantage of his lord.

The

The peaſants having no property, all their acquiſitions ſerve only to enrich their maſter. They are indiſpenſibly obliged to cultivate the earth; they are incapable of entering upon any condition of life that might procure them freedom, without the permiſſion of their lords; and they are expoſed to the diſmal, and frequently fatal effects, of the caprice, cruelty, and barbarity of their tyrannical maſters, who oppreſs them with impunity; and having the power of life and property in their hands, too often abuſe it in the moſt groſs and wanton manner, their wives and daughters being expoſed to the moſt brutal treatment. One bleſſing, however, attends the wretched ſituation of the Poliſh peaſants, which is their inſenſibility. Born ſlaves, and accuſtomed from their infancy to hardſhips and ſevere labour, they ſcarce entertain an idea of better circumſtances and more liberty. They regard their maſters as a ſuperior order of beings, and hardly ever repine at their ſevere lot. Chearful and contented with their condition, they are ready upon every occaſion to ſacrifice themſelves and their families for their maſter, eſpecially if the latter takes care to feed them well. They think that a man can never be very wretched while he has any thing to eat. I have been the more circumſtantial in deſcribing the manners and preſent ſtate of the Poles, as they bear a near reſemblance, in many particulars, to thoſe of our own country and Europe in general during the feudal ages.

DRESS.] The dreſs of the Poles is pretty ſingular. They cut the hair of their heads ſhort, and ſhave their beards, leaving only large whiſkers. They wear a veſt which reaches down to the middle of the leg, and a kind of gown over it lined with fur and girded with a ſaſh, but the ſleeves ſit as cloſe to their arms as a waiſtcoat. Their breeches are wide, and make but one piece with their ſtockings. They wear a fur cap; their ſhirts are without collar or wriſtbands, and they wear neither ſtock nor neckcloth. Inſtead of ſhoes, they wear Turkey leather boots, with thin ſoles, and deep iron heels bent like an half moon. They carry a pole-ax, and a ſabre or cutlaſs, by their ſides. When they appear on horſeback, they wear over all a ſhort cloak, which is commonly covered with furs both within and without. The people of the beſt quality wear ſables, and others the ſkins of tygers, leopards, &c. Some of them have fifty ſuits of clothes, all as rich as poſſible, and which deſcend from father to ſon.

Were it not for our own partiality to ſhort dreſſes, we muſt acknowledge that of the Poles to be picturesque and majeſtic. Charles II. of England, thought of introducing the Poliſh dreſs into his court, and, after his reſtoration, wore it for

two

two years, chiefly for the encouragement of Engliſh broad-cloth, but diſcontinued it through his connections with the French.

The habit of the women comes very near to that of the men; but ſome people of faſhion, of both ſexes, affect the French or Engliſh modes. As to the peaſants, in winter they wear a ſheep's-ſkin with the wool inwards, and in ſummer a thick coarſe cloth; but as to linen, they wear none. Their boots are the rinds of trees wrapped about their legs, with the thicker parts to guard the ſoles of their feet. The women have a watchful eye over their daughters, and make them wear little bells before and behind, to give notice where they are, and what they are doing.

The inns of this country are long ſtables built with boards and covered with ſtraw, without furniture or windows; there is a chamber at one end, but none can lodge there, becauſe of flies and other vermin; ſo that ſtrangers generally chuſe rather to lodge among the horſes. Travellers are obliged to carry proviſions with them; and when foreigners want a ſupply, they apply to the lord of the village, who forthwith provides them with neceſſaries.

RELIGION.] No country has bred more deiſts and free-thinkers in religious matters than Poland: the number of proteſtants, conſiſting of Lutherans and Calviniſts, in their republic is very conſiderable, and when theſe are joined to the Greek church, the whole are called Diſſidents. At the ſame time, the Poliſh nobility, and the bulk of the nation, are tenacious of the Roman-catholic religion, even to enthuſiaſm, witneſs the preſent oppreſſive war carried on in Poland. The treaty of Oliva, which was concluded in 1660, and tolerated the diſſidents, was guaranteed by the principal powers in Europe, but has ſince been ſo far diſregarded by the Poles, that about the year 1724, they made a public maſſacre, under the ſanction of law, of the proteſtants at Thorn, for which no ſatisfaction has been as yet obtained. The ſame may be ſaid of the other numerous proviſions made for the protection of the proteſtants, who were perſecuted, when Jews, Turks, and infidels of every kind, have been tolerated and encouraged. The monaſteries in Poland are by ſome writers ſaid to be 576, and the nunneries 117, beſides 246 ſeminaries or colleges, and 31 abbeys. The clergy are even poſſeſſed of two-thirds of the lands and revenues of the kingdom. The Poliſh clergy, in general, are illiterate bigots, and the monks are the moſt profligate of mankind. They are often ſeen drunk, and led from taverns, without apprehending any diſgrace to their order, or dreading the cenſure of their ſuperiors, who require equal indulgence.

After

After what has been ſaid, the reader cannot be at a loſs to account for the vaſt ſway which the clergy at this time appear to have in Poland, in ſpite of treaties and capitulations. Their diſaffection to their king is, however, not to be imputed entirely to religion, but to the march of the Ruſſians into the heart of the republic.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] Poland contains two archbiſhoprics; Gueſna, and Lemburg. The archbiſhop of Gueſna, beſides being primate, and during an interreign, prince-regent of the kingdom, is always a cardinal. The other biſhops, particularly Cracow, enjoy great privileges and immunities.

LANGUAGE.] The Poliſh language is a dialect of Sclavonic, and is both harſh and unharmonious, on account of the vaſt number of conſonants it employs, ſome of their words having no vowels at all. The Lithuanians and Livonians have a language full of corrupted Latin words; but the Ruſſian and German tongues are underſtood in the provinces bordering on thoſe countries.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Though Copernicus, the great reſtorer of the true aſtronomical ſyſtem, Vorſtius, and ſome other learned men, were natives of Poland, yet its ſoil is far from being favourable to learning. Latin is ſpoken, tho' incorrectly, by the common people in ſome provinces. But the contempt which the nobility, who place their chief importance in the privileges of their rank, have ever ſhown for learning, the ſervitude of the lower people, and the univerſal ſuperſtition among all ranks of men, theſe circumſtances have wonderfully retarded, and notwithſtanding the liberal efforts of his preſent majeſty, ſtill continue to retard the progreſs of letters in this kingdom.

UNIVERSITIES.] The univerſities of Poland are thoſe of Cracow, Poſna or Poſen, and Wilna. The firſt conſiſts of eleven colleges, and has the ſuperviſorſhip of 14 grammar-ſchools diſperſed through the city. That of Poſna is rather a jeſuit's college than an univerſity. We know nothing particular of Wilna; and all of them, by this time, are probably ruined.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] The frequent incurſions of the Tartars, and other barbarous nations, into Poland, probably forced the women ſometimes to leave their children expoſed in the woods, where we muſt ſuppoſe they were nurſed by bears and other wild beaſts, otherwiſe it is difficult to account for their ſubſiſtence. It is certain that ſuch beings have been found in the woods both of Poland and Germany, diveſted of all the properties

perties of humanity but the form. When taken, they generally went on all fours; but it is said, that some of them have, by proper management, attained to the use of speech; but this perhaps may be questioned.

The salt-mines of Poland consist of wonderful caverns several hundred yards deep, at the bottom of which are many intricate windings and labyrinths. Out of these are dug four different kinds of salts; one extremely hard, like chrystal; another softer, but clearer; a third white, but brittle: these are all brackish; but the fourth, somewhat fresher. These four kinds are dug in different mines, near the city of Cracow; on one side of them is a stream of salt-water, and on the other one of fresh. The revenue arising from those, and other salt-mines, is very considerable, and form part of the royal revenue; some having computed them at 40,000 l. sterling a year. Out of some mines at Itza, about 70 miles north-east of Cracow, are dug several kinds of earth, which are excellently adapted to the potters use, and supply all Poland with earthen-ware. Under the mountains adjoining to Kiow, in the deserts of Podolia, are several grottos, where a great number of human bodies are preserved, though buried a vast many years since, being neither so hard nor so black as the Egyptian mummies. Among them are two princes, in the habits they used to wear. It is thought that this preserving quality is owing to the nature of the soil, which is dry and sandy. Poland can boast of few antiquities, as old Sarmatia was never perfectly known to the Romans themselves. Its artificial rarities are but few, the chief being the gold, silver, and enamelled vessels, presented by the kings and prelates of Poland, and preserved in the cathedral of Guesna.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE.

Warsaw lies on the Vistula, and almost in the centre of Poland. It is the royal residence; but though it contains many magnificent palaces and other buildings, besides churches and convents, it has little or no commerce. The same may be said of Cracow, which is the capital, (though that honour is disputed by Warsaw) for we are told, that notwithstanding it lies in the neighbourhood of the rich salt mines, and is said to contain fifty churches and convents, its commerce is inconsiderable.

Dantzic is the capital of Polish Prussia, and is famous in history on many accounts, particularly that of its being formerly at the head of the Hanseatic association, commonly called the Hanse-towns. It is situated on the Vistula, near five miles from the Baltic, and is a large, beautiful, populous

city; its houſes generally are five ſtories high; and many of its ſtreets are planted with cheſnut-trees. It has a fine harbour, and is ſtill a moſt eminent commercial city, although it ſeems to be ſomewhat paſt its meridian glory, which was probably about the time that the preſident de Thou wrote his much eſteemed *Hiſtoria ſui Temporis*; wherein, under the year 1607, he ſo highly celebrates its commerce and grandeur. It is a republic, with a ſmall adjacent territory about forty miles round it, under the protection of the king and the republic of Poland. Its magiſtracy, and the majority of its inhabitants, are Lutherans; although the Romaniſts and Calviniſts be equally tolerated in it. It is rich, and has 26 pariſhes, with many convents and hoſpitals. The elder inhabitants make her number amount to 200,000; but later computations fall very conſiderably ſhort of it; as appears by its annual bill of mortality, exhibited by Dr. Buſching, who tells us, that in the year 1752, there died there but 1846 perſons. Its own ſhipping is numerous, but the foreign ſhips conſtantly reſorting to it are more ſo, whereof 1014 arrived there in the year 1752; in which year alſo 1288 Poliſh veſſels came down the Viſtula, chiefly laden with corn, for its matchleſs granaries; from whence that grain is diſtributed to many foreign nations; Poland being juſtly deemed the greateſt magazine of corn in all Europe, and Dantzic the greateſt port for diſtributing it every where: beſides which, Dantzic exports great quantities of naval ſtores, and vaſt variety of other articles. Dr. Buſching affirms, that it appears from ancient records, as early as the year 997, that Dantzic was a large commercial city, and not a village or inconſiderable town, as ſome pretend.

The inhabitants of Dantzic have often changed their maſters, and have ſometimes been under the protection of the Engliſh and Dutch, but of late they have ſhewed a great predilection for the kingdom and republic of Poland, as being leſs likely to rival them in their trade, or abridge them of their immunities, which reach even to the privilege of coining money. Though ſtrongly fortified, and poſſeſſed of 150 large braſs cannon, it could not, through its ſituation, ſtand a regular ſiege, being ſurrounded with eminences; and in 1734, the inhabitants diſcovered a remarkable attachment and fidelity towards Staniſlaus, king of Poland, not only when his enemies, the Ruſſians, were at their gates, but even in poſſeſſion of the city.

The reaſon why Dantzic, Thorn, and Elbing, enjoy privileges, both civil and religious, very different from thoſe of the reſt of Poland is, becauſe not being able to endure the

tyranny

tyranny of the Teutonic knights, they put themſelves under the protection of Poland; but reſerving to themſelves large and ample privileges, which they ſtill enjoy.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Some linen and woollen cloths, and hard wares, are manufactured in the interior parts of Poland; but commerce is entirely confined to the city of Dantzic, and their other towns on the Viſtula and the Baltic.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Whole volumes have been written upon this ſubject, but it remains in a great meaſure ſtill unknown. The king is the head of the republic, and is elected by the nobility and clergy in the plains of Warſaw. They elect him on horſeback; and in caſe there ſhould be a refractory minority, the majority has no controul over them, but to cut them in pieces with their ſabres. Immediately after his election, he ſigns the *pacta conventa* of the kingdom, by which he engages to introduce no foreigners into the army or government; ſo that in fact he is no more than preſident of the ſenate, which is compoſed of the primate, the archbiſhop of Lemburg, fifteen biſhops, and 130 laymen, conſiſting of the great officers of ſtate, the palatines, and caſtellans.

The diets of Poland are ordinary and extraordinary: the former meet once in two, and ſometimes three years; the latter is ſummoned by the king, upon critical emergencies; but one diſſenting voice renders all their deliberations ineffectual.

The ſtaroſts properly are governors and judges in particular ſtaroſties or diſtricts, though ſome enjoy this title without any juriſdiction at all. The palatines and caſtellans, beſides being ſenators, are lord-lieutenants and deputy-lieutenants in their reſpective palatinates.

Previous to a general diet, either ordinary or extraordinary, which can ſit but ſix weeks, there are dietines, or provincial diets, held in different diſtricts. The king ſends them letters containing the heads of the buſineſs that is to be treated of in the general diet. The gentry of each palatinate may ſit in the dietine, and chuſe nuncios or deputies, to carry their reſolutions to the grand diet. The great diet conſiſts of the king, ſenators, and thoſe deputies from provinces and towns, viz. 178 for Poland and Lithuania, and ſeventy for Pruſſia; and it meets twice at Warſaw and once at Grodno, by turns, for the conveniency of the Lithuanians, who made it one of the articles of their union with Poland.

The king may nominate the great officers of ſtate, but they are accountable only to the ſenate; neither can he diſplace

them when once appointed. When he is abſent from Poland, his place is ſupplied by the archbiſhop of Gueſna, and if that ſee is vacant, by the biſhop of Ploſko.

The ten great officers of ſtate in Poland, who are ſenators, are, the two great marſhals, one of Poland, the other of Lithuania; the chancellor of the kingdom, and the chancellor of the duchy; the vice-chancellor of the kingdom, and the vice-chancellor of the duchy; the treaſurer of the kingdom, and the treaſurer of the duchy; the ſub-marſhal, or marſhal of the court of the kingdom; and the ſub-marſhal, or marſhal of the court of the duchy.

Such are the outlines of this motley conſtitution, which is new modelled with almoſt every new king, according to the *pacta conventa* which he is obliged to ſign; ſo that nothing of it can be ſaid with certainty, and leſs at this time than ever; there being now a total diſſolution of all order in Poland. It muſt, however, be acknowledged, that in the imperfect ſketch I have exhibited, we can diſcern the great outlines of a noble and free government. The precautions taken to limit the king's power, and yet inveſt him with an ample prerogative, are worthy of a wiſe people. The inſtitutions of the diet and dietines are favourable to public liberty, as are many other proviſions in the republic. It laboured, however, even in its beſt ſtate, under incurable diſorders. The exerciſe of the *veto*, or the tribunitial negative, that is veſted in every member of a diet or dietine, muſt always be deſtructive of order and government. It is founded, however, upon Gothic principles, and that unlimited juriſdiction which the great lords, in former ages, uſed to enjoy all over Europe. The want of ſubordination in the executive parts of the conſtitution, and the rendering noblemen independent and unaccountable for their conduct, is a blemiſh which perhaps may be impracticable to remove, as it can be done only by their own conſent. After all, when we examine the beſt accounts of the preſent conſtitution of Poland, and compare them with the antient hiſtory of Great Britain, and other European kingdoms, we may perceive a wonderful ſimilarity between what theſe were formerly, and what Poland is at preſent. This naturally leads us to infer, that the government of Poland cannot be otherwiſe improved than by the introduction of arts, manufactures, and commerce, which would render the common people independent on the nobility, and prevent the latter from having it in their power to annoy their ſovereign, and to maintain thoſe unequal privileges which are ſo hurtful to the community. If a nobleman of great abilities, and who happened to poſſeſs an extenſive territory within the kingdom, ſhould

ſhould be elected ſovereign, he might perhaps, by a proper uſe of the prerogatives of diſpoſing of all places of truſt and profit, and of ennobling the plebeians, which are already veſted in the crown, eſtabliſh the ſucceſſion in his own family, and deliver the Poles from thoſe perpetual convulſions which muſt ever attend an elective kingdom.

REVENUES.] Though the king of Poland is ſtinted in the political exerciſe of his prerogative, yet his revenue is ſufficient to maintain him and his houſhold with great ſplendor, as he pays no troops, or officers of ſtate, nor even his body guards. The preſent king had 1,000,000 and half of florins ſettled upon him by the commiſſion of ſtate; and the income of his predeceſſors generally amounted to 140,000 l. ſterling. The public revenues ariſe chiefly from the crown-lands, the ſalt-mines in the palatinate of Cracow, antient tolls and cuſtoms, particularly thoſe of Elbing and Dantzic, the rents of Marienburg, Dirſhau, and Rogenhus, and of the government of Cracow and diſtrict of Niepoliomicz.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The innate pride of the Poliſh nobility is ſuch, that they always appear in the field on horſeback; and it is ſaid that Poland can raiſe 100,000, and Lithuania 70,000 cavalry, and that with eaſe; but it muſt be underſtood that ſervants are included. As to their infantry, they are generally hired from Germany, but are ſoon diſmiſſed, becauſe they muſt be maintained by extraordinary taxes, of which the Poliſh grandees are by no means fond. As to the ordinary army of the Poles, it conſiſts of 36,000 men, in Poland, and 12,000 in Lithuania, cantoned into crown-lands. The ploſpolite conſiſts of all the nobility of the kingdom and their followers, excepting the chancellor, and the ſtaroſts of frontier places; and they may be called by the king into the field upon extraordinary occaſions, but he cannot keep them above ſix weeks in arms, neither are they obliged to march above three leagues out of the kingdom.

The Poliſh huſſars are the fineſt and moſt ſhewy body of cavalry in Europe; next to them are the pancerns; and both thoſe bodies wear defenſive armour of coats of mail and iron caps. The reſt of their cavalry are armed with muſkets and heavy ſcimiters. After all that has been ſaid, the Poliſh cavalry are extremely inefficient in the field, for though the men are brave, and their horſes excellent, they are ſtrangers to all diſcipline; and when drawn out, notwithſtanding all the authority their crown-general, their other officers, and even the king himſelf, have over them, they are oppreſſive and deſtructive to the court. It is certain, notwithſtanding, that the Poles may be rendered excellent troops by diſcipline, and that

on various occaſions, particularly under John Sobieſki, they made as great a figure in arms as any people in Europe, and proved the bulwark of Chriſtendom againſt the infidels. It did not ſuit the Saxon princes, who ſucceeded that hero, to encourage a martial ſpirit in the Poles, whom they perpetually overawed with their electoral troops; nor indeed to introduce any reformation among them, either civil or military; the effects of which conduct has been ſince, and is now ſeverely felt in that devoted country.

ORDERS.] The order of the White Eagle was inſtituted by Auguſtus II. in the year 1705. Its enſign is a croſs of gold, enamelled with red, and appendant to a blue ribbon. The motto, *Pro fide, rege et lege.*

HISTORY.] Poland, of old, was divided into many ſmall ſtates or principalities, each almoſt independent of another, though they generally had ſome prince who was paramount over the reſt. In the year 830, a peaſant, one Piaſtus, was elected to the ſovereign throne. He lived to the age of 120 years, and his reign was ſo long and auſpicious, that every native Pole who has been ſince elected king is called a piaſt. From this period to the cloſe of the 14th century, we have no certain records of the hiſtory of Poland. Jagellon, who at this time mounted the throne, was grand duke of Livonia, and a pagan; but on his being elected king of Poland, he not only became a Chriſtian, but was at pains to bring over his ſubjects to that religion. He united his hereditary dominions to thoſe of Poland, which gave ſuch influence to his poſterity over the hearts of the Poles, that the crown was preſerved in his family, until the male line extinguiſhed in Sigiſmund Auguſtus, in 1552. At this time two powerful competitors appeared for the crown of Poland. Theſe were Henry, duke of Anjou, brother to Charles IX. king of France, and Maximilian, of Auſtria. The French intereſt prevailed; but Henry had not been four months on the throne of Poland, when his brother died, and he returned privately into France, which kingdom he governed by the name of Henry III. The party who had eſpouſed Maximilian's intereſt, endeavoured once more to revive his pretenſions; but the majority of the Poles being deſirous to chuſe a prince who might reſide among them, made choice of Stephen Batori, prince of Tranſylvania; who, in the beginning of his reign, meeting with ſome oppoſition from the Auſtrian faction, took the wiſeſt method to eſtabliſh himſelf on the throne, by marrying Anne, the ſiſter of Sigiſmund Auguſtus, and of the royal houſe of Jagellon. Stephen produced a great change in the military affairs of the Poles, by eſtabliſhing a new militia, compoſed of the Coſſacks, a rough

and

and barbarous race of men, on whom he beſtowed the Uckrain, or frontiers of his kingdom. Upon his death, in 1586, the Poles choſe Sigiſmund, ſon of John, king of Sweden, by Catharine, ſiſter of Sigiſmund II. for their king.

Sigiſmund was crowned king of Sweden after his father's death, but being expelled, as we have already ſeen in the hiſtory of Sweden, by the Swedes, a long war enſued between them and the Poles, but terminated in favour of the latter. Sigiſmund being ſecured in the throne of Poland, aſpired to that of Ruſſia as well as Sweden, but after long wars, he was defeated in both views. He was afterwards engaged in a variety of unſucceſsful wars with the Turks and the Swedes. At laſt a truce was concluded under the mediation of France and England; but the Poles were forced to agree that the Swedes ſhould keep Elbing, Memel, Branuſberg and Pillau, together with all they had taken in Livonia. In the year 1632, Sigiſmund died, and Uladiſlaus his ſon ſucceeded. This prince was ſucceſsful both againſt the Turks and the Ruſſians, and obliged the Swedes to reſtore all the Poliſh dominions they had taken in Pruſſia. His reign, however, was unfortunate, by his being inſtigated, through the avarice of his great men, to encroach upon the privileges of the Coſſacs in the Ukraine. As the war which followed, was carried on againſt the Coſſacs upon ambitious and perfidious principles, the Coſſacs, who are naturally a brave people, became deſperate; and upon the ſucceſſion of John II. brother to Uladiſlaus, the Coſſac general Schmielinſki, defeated the Poles in two great battles, and at laſt forced them to a diſhonourable peace. It appears, that during the courſe of this war, the Poliſh nobility behaved as the worſt of ruffians, and their conduct was highly condemned by John; but his nobility diſapproved of the peace he had concluded with them. While the jealouſy hereby occaſioned continued, the Ruſſians came to a rupture with the Poles; and being joined by many of the Coſſacs, they, in the year 1654, took Smolenſko. This was followed with the taking of Wilna, and other places; and they committed moſt horrid ravages in Lithuania. Next year, Charles X. of Sweden, after over-running the Great and Little Poland, fell into Poliſh Pruſſia, all the towns of which received him excepting Dantzic. The reſiſtance made by that city, gave the Poles time to reaſſemble, and their king, John Caſimir, who had fled into Sileſia, was joined by the Tartars, as well as Poles; ſo that the Swedes, who were diſperſed through the country, were every where cut in pieces. The Lithuanians, at the ſame time, diſowned the allegiance they had been forced to pay to Charles, who

returned to Sweden, with no more than a handful of his army. It was during this expedition, that the Dutch and Engliſh protected Dantzic, the elector of Brandenburg acquired the ſovereignty of the ducal Pruſſia, which had ſubmitted to Charles. Thus the latter loſt Poland, of which he had made an almoſt complete conqueſt. The treaty of Oliva was begun after the Swedes had been driven out of Cracow and Thorn, by which Royal Pruſſia was reſtored to the Poles. They were, however, forced to quit all pretenſions to Livonia, and to cede Smolenſko, Kiow, and the duchy of Siveria, to the Ruſſians.

During thoſe tranſactions, the Poliſh nobility grew very uneaſy with their king. Some of them were diſſatisfied with the conceſſions he had made to the Coſſacs, many of whom had thrown off the Poliſh yoke; others taxed him with want of capacity; and ſome, with an intention to rule by a mercenary army of Germans. Caſimir, who very poſſibly had no ſuch intentions, and was fond of retirement and ſtudy, finding that cabals and factions encreaſed every day, and that he himſelf might fall a ſacrifice to the public diſcontent, abdicated his throne, and died abbot of St. Germains in France, employing the remainder of his days in Latin poetical compoſitions, which are far from being deſpicable.

The moſt remote deſcendents of the antient kings ending in John Caſimir, many foreign candidates preſented themſelves for the crown of Poland; but the Poles choſe for their king, a private gentleman of little intereſt, and leſs capacity, one Michael Wieſnowiſki, becauſe he was a Piaſt. His reign was diſgraceful to Poland. Large bodies of the Coſſacs had put themſelves under the protection of the Turks, who conquered all the provinces of Podolia, and took Kaminieck, till then thought impregnable. The greateſt part of Poland was then ravaged, and the Poles were obliged to pay an annual tribute to the ſultan. Notwithſtanding thoſe diſgraceful events, the credit of the Poliſh arms was in ſome meaſure maintained by John Sobieſki, the crown general, a brave and an active commander, who had given the Turks ſeveral defeats. Michael dying in 1673, Sobieſki was choſen king; and in 1676, he was ſo ſucceſsful againſt the infidels, that he forced them to remit the tribute they had impoſed upon Poland, but they kept poſſeſſion of Kaminieck. In 1683, Sobieſki, though he had not been well treated by the houſe of Auſtria, was ſo public ſpirited, as to enter into the league that was formed for the defence of Chriſtendom againſt the infidels, and acquired immortal honour, by obliging the Turks to raiſe the ſiege of Vienna, and making a terrible ſlaughter of the

the enemy; for all which glorious ſervices, and driving the Turks out of Hungary, he was ungratefully requited by the emperor Leopald.

Sobieſki returning to Poland, continued the war againſt the Turks, but unfortunately quarrelled with the ſenate, who ſuſpected that he wanted to make the crown hereditary in his family. He died, after a glorious reign, in 1696.

Poland fell into great diſtractions upon Sobieſki's death. Many confederacies were formed, but all parties ſeemed inclined to exclude the Sobieſki family. In the mean while, Poland was inſulted by the Tartars, and her crown was in a manner put up to ſale. The prince of Conti, of the blood royal of France, was the moſt liberal bidder; but while he thought the election almoſt ſure, he was diſappointed by the intrigues of the queen dowager, in favour of her younger ſon prince Alexander Sobieſki, for which ſhe was driven from Warſaw to Dantzic. All of a ſudden, Auguſtus, elector of Saxony, ſtarted up as a candidate, and after a ſham election being proclaimed by the biſhop of Cujavia, he took poſſeſſion of Cracow, with a Saxon army, and actually was crowned in that city, in 1697. The prince of Conti made ſeveral unſucceſsful efforts to re-eſtabliſh his intereſt, and pretended that he had been actually choſen, but he was afterwards obliged to return to France, and the other powers of Europe ſeemed to acquieſce in the election of Auguſtus. The manner in which he was driven from the throne, by Charles XII. of Sweden, and afterwards reſtored by the czar, Peter the Great, has been already related. It was not till the year 1712, that Auguſtus was fully confirmed on the throne, which he held upon precarious and diſagreeable terms. The Poles were naturally attached to Staniſlaus, and were perpetually forming conſpiracies and plots againſt Auguſtus, who was obliged to maintain his authority by means of his Saxon guards and regiments. In 1725, his natural ſon prince Maurice, afterwards the famous count Saxe, was choſen duke of Courland; but Auguſtus was not able to maintain him in that dignity, againſt the power of Ruſſia, and the jealouſy of the Poles. Auguſtus died, after an unquiet reign, in 1733, after he had done all he could to inſure the ſucceſſion of Poland to his ſon Auguſtus II. (or, as he is called by ſome III.) This occaſioned a war, in which the French king maintained the intereſt of his father-in-law Staniſlaus, who was actually re-elected to the throne, by a conſiderable party, of which the prince primate was the head. But Auguſtus, entering Poland with a powerful army of Saxons and Ruſſians, compelled his rival to retreat into Dantzic, from whence he eſcaped with great difficulty

ficulty into France. I have, in other parts of this work, mentioned the war between Auguſtus II. as elector of Saxony, or rather as the ally of Ruſſia and Auſtria, and his preſent Pruſſian majeſty. It is ſufficient to ſay, that though Auguſtus was a mild, moderate prince, and did every thing to ſatisfy the Poles, he never could gain their hearts, and all he obtained from them was merely ſhelter, when his Pruſſian majeſty drove him from his capital, and electorate. Auguſtus died at Dreſden, in 1763, upon which count Staniſlaus Poniatowſki, rather on account of his perſonal merits, and the impatience of the Poles under the Saxon yoke, than any pre-eminence of birth or family, was unanimouſly choſen king of Poland, by the name of Staniſlaus Auguſtus. As he was eminently favoured by the Ruſſians, the capitulation which he ſigned at the time of his election, and other acts of his government, were thought too favourable for the proteſtants and the Greek diſſidents, the latter of whom claim her imperial majeſty of Ruſſia, as their protector and patroneſs. Her having an army lying, at that time, in Holland, gave a handle for many confederacies being formed by the catholics againſt Poniatowſki. At firſt they were cruſhed with prodigious ſlaughter, and to the deſolation of the country, by the Ruſſians, the king not daring to truſt even the Poles of his own party, for protection. The heads of the confederacy, at laſt, moſt unnaturally put themſelves under the protection of the grand ſignior, who readily embraced their cauſe, proclaimed war againſt Ruſſia, and invaded Poland with a powerful army, and it is at this time a theatre of as much miſery, blood, and devaſtation, as perhaps ever was known in hiſtory *.

SWITZERLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	260	between	6 and 11 eaſt longitude.
Breadth	100		45 and 48 north latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded by Alſace and Suabia in Germany, on the north; by the lake of Conſtance, Tirol, and Trent, on the eaſt; by Italy, on the ſouth; and by France, on the weſt.

* Staniſlaus Auguſtus, (late count Poniatowſki) was born in 1732, and crowned king of Poland in 1764. This prince, while a private nobleman, reſided ſome time in London; and is a fellow of the Royal Society.

DIVISIONS.] Switzerland is divided into thirteen cantons, which ſtand in point of precedency as follows: 1. Zurich; 2. Berne; 3. Lucern; 4. Wic; 5. Switz; 6. Underwald; 7. Zug; 8. Glaris; 9. Baſil or Baſle; 10. Friburg; 11. Solothurn; 12. Schaffhauſen; 13. Appenzel.

The beſt account we have of the dimenſions, and principal towns of each canton, is as follows.

Switzerland. Countries Names.		Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.	
	Berne	2,346	111	87	Berne	
Calviniſts.	Zurich	728	34	33	Zurich	
	Schaffhauſen	140	23	9	Schaffhauſe	
	Baſil	240	21	18	BASIL	47-40 N. Lat. 7-40 E. Lon.
	Lucern	460	33	35	Lucern	
	Underwald	270	23	16	Stantz	
	Uri	612	48	21	Altorf	
Papiſts.	Suiſſe	250	27	13	Suiſſe	
	Friburg	370	24	21	Friburg	
	Zug	112	18	10	Zug	
	Solothurn	253	31	24	Solothura	
Calvin. and Papiſts.	Appenzel	270	23	21	Apenzel	
	Glaris	257	24	18	Glaris	
	Baden				Baden	
	Bremgarten	216	26	12	Bremgarten	
The ſubjects of the Switzers. Calviniſts and Papiſts,	Mellingen				Mellingen	
	Rhintal	40	20	5	Rheineck	
	Turgow	119	18	11	Frowanfield	
	Lugano				Lugano	
	Locarno				Locarno	
	Mendris	850	52	30	Mendris	
	Magia				Magia	
	Total—	7,533				

Allies of the Switzers; the county of the Griſons, St. Gaul Repub. St. Gaul abbey, Tockenburg, Valais, Neufchatel, Mulhauſen, and Geneva, N. Lat. 46-20, E. Lon. 6.

SOIL, AIR, SEASONS AND WATER.] This being a mountainous country, lying upon the Alps, the froſts are conſequently bitter in winter, the hills being covered with ſnow, ſometimes all the year long. In ſummer the inequality of the ſoil renders the ſame province very unequal in its ſeaſons; on one ſide of thoſe mountains the inhabitants are often reaping, while they are ſowing on another. The vallies, however, are warm and fruitful, when well cultivated, as they generally are. The country is ſubject to rains and tempeſts, for which reaſon public granaries are every where erected to ſupply the failure of their crops. The water of Swiſſerland is generally excellent, and often deſcends from the mountains in large or ſmall cataracts, which have a pleaſing effect.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The chief rivers are the Rhine, the Aar, the Rufs, the Jun, the Rhone, the Thur and the Oglios. The lakes are thofe of Geneva, Conftance, Thun, Lucern, Zurich, Neufchatel and Biende.

METALS AND MINERALS.] The mountains contain mines of iron, cryftal, virgin fulphur, and fprings of mineral waters.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] Sheep and cattle are the chief animal productions of this country; corn and wood, and fome wine, with pot-herbs of almoft every kind, are likewife found here. The produce, however, of all thofe articles, are no more than fufficient for the inhabitants, who are too far removed from water-carriage to be profited by the ftately timber that grows in their woods. They have vaft plenty of game, fifh and fowl.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] According to the beft accounts, the cantons of Switzerland contain about 2,000,000 of inhabitants, who are a brave, hardy, induftrious people, remarkable for their fidelity, and attachment to the caufe they undertake. Like the old Romans, they are equally inured to arms and agriculture. All the cantons are regimented in a manner, that contributes equally to the fafety and profit of the inhabitants, who fupply foreign powers with excellent foldiers. They are fo jealous of their liberties, that they difcourage foreigners from fettling among them. Their nobility and gentry difdain the profeffion of trade and manufactures. It is faid, that in many places of Switzerland, the inhabitants, efpecially thofe towards France, begin to degenerate from the antient fimplicity of their manners and drefs. The cuftoms and diverfions are of the warlike and active kind, and the magiftrates of moft of the cantons, impofe fines upon plays, gaming, and even dancing, excepting at marriages.

RELIGION.] Though all the Swifs cantons form but one political republic, yet they are not united in religion, as the reader, in the table prefixed, may perceive. Thofe differences in religion formerly created many public commotions, which feem now to have fubfided. Zuing, commonly called Zuinglius, was the apoftle of proteftantifm in Switzerland. He was a moderate reformer, and differed from Luther, and Calvin, only in a few fpeculative points; fo that Calvinifm is faid to be the religion of the proteftant Swiffes.

LANGUAGE.] Several languages prevail in Switzerland; but the moft common is German. The Swiffes, who border upon France, fpeak a baftard French, as thofe near Italy do a corrupted Latin, or Italian.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Calvin, whose name is so well known in all protestant countries, instituted laws for the city of Geneva, which are held in high esteem by the most learned of that country. The ingenious and eloquent Rousseau too, whose works the present age have received with so much approbation, is a citizen of Geneva. Rousseau has given a force to the French language, which it was thought incapable of receiving. In England he is generally known as a prose-writer only, but the French admire him as a poet. His opera of the *Devin de Village* in particular is much esteemed; but in this he has acted with his usual consistency, in first abusing the French music, and then composing an opera.

UNIVERSITIES.] The university of Basil contains a noble library, some valuable manuscripts, and an excellent collection of medals. The other universities are those of Bern, Lausanne and Zurich.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Every district of a canton in this mountainous country, presents the traveller with a natural curiosity; sometimes in the shape of wild but beautiful prospects, interspersed with lofty buildings, wonderful hermitages, especially one two leagues from Friburg. This was formed by the hands of a single hermit, who laboured on it for 25 years, and was living in 1707. It is the greatest curiosity of the kind perhaps in the world, as it contains a chapel, a parlour, 28 paces in length, 12 in breadth, and 20 feet in height, a cabinet, a kitchen, a cellar, and other apartments, with the altar, benches, flooring, ceiling, all cut out of the rock. The marcasites, false diamonds, and other stones, found in those mountains, are justly ranked among the natural curiosities of the country. The ruins of Cæsar's wall, which extended 18 miles in length, from mount Jura, to the banks of lake Leman, are still discernible. Many monuments of antiquity have been discovered near the baths of Baden, which were known to the Romans in the time of Tacitus. Switzerland boasts of many noble religious buildings, particularly a college of jesuits; and many cabinets of valuable manuscripts, antiques, and curiosities of all kinds.

CITIES.] Of these the most considerable is the city of Bern, standing on the river Aar. This city and canton, it is said, forms almost a third of the Helvetic confederacy, and can, upon occasion, fit out 100,000 armed men. All the other cities in Switzerland are excellently well provided in arsenals, bridges, and public edifices. Basil is accounted by some the capital of all Switzerland.

I shall here, to prevent a repetition, mention the city of Geneva, which is an associate of Switzerland, and is under the

the protection of the Helvetic body, but within itself is an independent state, and republic. The city is well built, and well fortified, contains 30,000 inhabitants, most of whom are Calvinists. It is situated upon the efflux of the Rhone, from the large fine lake of Geneva. It is celebrated for the learning of the professors of its university, and the good government of its colleges, the purity of its air, and the politeness of its inhabitants. By its situation, it is a thoroughfare from Germany, France, and Italy. It contains a number of fine manufactures and artists; so that the protestants, especially such as are of a liberal turn, esteem it a most delightful place.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The productions of the loom, linen, dimity, lace, stockings, handkerchiefs, and gloves, are common in Switzerland, and the inhabitants are now beginning to fabricate, notwithstanding their sumptuary laws, silks, velvets, and woollen manufactures. Their great progress in those manufactures, and in agriculture, gives them a prospect of being able soon to make some exports.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] These are very complicated heads, though belonging to the same body, being partly monarchical, partly aristocratical, and partly democratical. The bishop of Basil, and abbot of St. Gaul, are sovereigns. Every canton is absolute in its own jurisdiction, but those of Bern, Zurich, and Lucern, with other dependencies, are aristocratical; those of Uri, Schwitz, Underwald, Zug, Glaris, and Appenzel, are democratical. But even those aristocracies, and democracies, differ in their particular modes of government. Perhaps in fact the democratical and popular part, as well as the aristocratical, are governed by their several leaders among the nobility, gentry, or eminent citizens.

The confederacy, considered as a republic, comprehends three divisions. The first, are the Swisses, properly so called. The second, are the Grisons, or the states, confederated with the Swisses, for their common protection. The third, are those prefectures, which, though subject to the other two, by purchase or otherwise, preserve each its own particular magistrates. Every canton forms within itself a little republic; but when any controversy arises, that may affect the whole confederacy, it is referred to the general diet, which sits at Baden, where each canton having a vote, every question is decided by the majority. The general diet consists of two deputies from each canton, besides a deputy from the abbot of St. Gaul, and the cities of St. Gaul and Bienne.

REVENUES AND TAXES.] The variety of cantons that constitute the Swiss confederacy, renders it difficult to give a precise

preciſe account of their revenues. Thoſe of the canton of Bern, are ſaid to amount annually to 300,000 crowns, and thoſe of Zurich to 150,000, the other cantons in proportion to their produce and manufactures. Whatever is ſaved, after defraying the neceſſary expences of government, is laid up as a common ſtock, and it has been ſaid, that the Swiſſes are poſſeſſed of 500,000 l. ſterling in the Engliſh funds, beſides thoſe in other banks.

The revenues ariſe; 1. from the profits of the demeſne lands; 2. the tenth of the produce of all the lands in the country; 3. cuſtoms and duties on merchandize; 4. the revenues ariſing from the ſale of ſalt, and ſome caſual taxes.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The internal ſtrength of the Swiſs cantons conſiſts of 13,400 men, raiſed according to the population and abilities of each. The œconomy and wiſdom with which this force is raiſed and employed, are truly admirable, as are the arrangements which are made by the general diet, for keeping up that great body of militia, from which foreign ſtates and princes are ſupplied, ſo as to benefit the ſtate, without any prejudice to its population.

HISTORY.] The preſent Swiſſes and Griſons, as has been already mentioned, are the deſcendents of the antient Helvetii, ſubdued by Julius Cæſar. Their mountainous uninviting ſituation, formed a better ſecurity for their liberties, than their forts or armies, and the ſame is their caſe at preſent. They continued long under little better than a nominal ſubjection to the Burgundians and Germans, till about the year 1300, when the emperor Albert I. treated them with ſo much rigour, that they petitioned him againſt the cruelty of his governors. This ſerved only to redouble the hardſhips of the people, and one of Albert's Auſtrian governors Griſler, in the wantonneſs of tyranny, ſet up a hat upon a pole, to which he ordered the natives to pay as much reſpect as to himſelf. One William Tell, being obſerved to paſs frequently without taking notice of the hat, and being an excellent markſman, the tyrant condemned him to be hanged, unleſs he cleft an apple upon his ſon's head, at a certain diſtance, with an arrow. Tell cleft the apple; and Griſler aſking him the meaning of another arrow he ſaw ſtuck in his belt, he bluntly anſwered, that it was intended to his [Griſler's] heart, if he had killed his ſon. Tell was condemned to priſon upon this, but making his eſcape, he watched his opportunity, and ſhot the tyrant, and thereby laid the foundations of the Helvetic liberty.

Notwithſtanding the above ſtory, which might be true in the whole or part, it ſeems to be certain that the revolt of the Swiſſes from the Auſtrian tyranny had been planned among ſome noble patriots for ſome time before. Their meaſures were

ſo

ſo juſt, and their courage ſo intrepid, that they ſoon found a union of ſeveral cantons, which daily encreaſed, and repeatedly defeated the united powers of France and Germany; till by the treaty of Weſtphalia in 1648, their confederacy was declared to be a free and independent ſtate. With regard to the military character, and great actions of the Swiſſes, I muſt refer the reader to the hiſtories of Europe.

SPAIN.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length near 700	between	10 W. and 3 eaſt longitude.
Breadth 500		36 and 44 north latitude.

BOUNDARIES. IT is bounded on the weſt by Portugal and the Atlantic ocean; by the Mediterranean, on the eaſt; by the Bay of Biſcay and the Pyrenean mountains, which ſeparate it from France, on the north; and by the ſtrait of the ſea of Gibraltar, on the ſouth.

It is now divided into fourteen diſtricts, beſides iſlands in the Mediterranean.

Spain.	Countries Names.	Square miles.	Length	Breadth	Chief cities.
	Caſtile, New	27,840	220	180	MADRID N. Lat. 40—30 W. Lon. 4—15
	Andaluſia	16,500	273	135	Seville
	Caſtile, Old	14,400	193	140	Burgos
	Arragon	13,818	190	105	Saragoſa
	Eſtremadura	12,600	180	123	Badajos
	Galicia	12,000	165	120	Compoſtella
Papiſts.	Leon	11,200	167	96	Leon
	Catalonia	9000	172	110	Barcelona
	Granada	8100	200	45	Granada
	Valencia	6800	180	75	Valencia
	Biſcay and Ipuſcoa	4760	140	55	Bilboa
	Aſturia	4600	124	55	Oviedo
	Murcia	3600	87	65	Murcia
	Upper Navarre	3000	92	45	Pampelona
In the Mediterranean.	Majorca I.	1400	58	40	Majorca
	Yvica I.	625	37	25	Yvica
	Total—	150,263			

The town and fortreſs of Gibraltar, ſubject to Great Britain.

ANCIENT NAMES AND DIVISIONS.] Spain formerly included Portugal, and was known to the ancients by the name of Iberia, and Heſperia, as well as Hiſpania. It was, about the

the time of the Punic wars, divided into Citerior and Ulterior; the Citerior, or hither part, contained the provinces lying north of the river Ebro; and the Ulterior, which was the largeſt part, comprehending all that lay beyond that river. Innumerable are the changes that it afterwards underwent; but there is no country of whoſe ancient hiſtory, at leaſt the interior part of it, we know leſs of than that of Spain.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND WATER.] Excepting during the equinoxial rains, the air of Spain is dry and ſerene, but exceſſive hot in the ſouthern provinces in June, July, and Auguſt. The vaſt mountains that run through Spain are, however, very beneficial to the inhabitants, by the refreſhing breezes that come from them in the ſouthernmoſt parts; tho' thoſe towards the north and north-eaſt, are in the winter very cold, and in the night make a traveller ſhiver.

So few writers have treated of the interior parts of Spain, that the public knew little of them till within theſe fifty years. The ſoil of Spain, it is well known, was formerly fruitful in corn, but the natives now find a ſcarcity of it, by their diſuſe of tillage, through their indolence; the cauſes of which I ſhall explain afterwards. It produces, in many places almoſt ſpontaneouſly, the richeſt and moſt delicious fruits that are to be found in France and Italy, oranges, lemons, prunes, citrons, almonds, raiſins, and figs. Her wines, eſpecially her ſack and ſherry, are in high requeſt among foreigners; and Dr. Buſching ſays, that the inhabitants of Malaga, and the neighbouring country, export yearly wines and raiſins to the amount of 268,759 l. ſterling. Spain indeed offers to the traveller large tracts of unpromiſing, becauſe uncultivated ground; but no country perhaps maintains ſuch a number of inhabitants, who neither toil nor work for their food; ſuch are the generous qualities of its ſoil. Even ſugar-canes thrive in Spain; and it yields ſaffron, honey, and ſilk, in great abundance. A late writer, Uſtariz, a Spaniard himſelf, computes the number of ſhepherds in Spain to the amount of 40,000; and has given us a moſt curious detail of their œconomy, their changes of paſture at certain times of the year, and many other particulars unknown till lately to the public. Thoſe ſheep-walks afford the fineſt of wool, and are a treaſure in themſelves. Some of the mountains in Spain are cloathed with rich trees, fruits, and herbage, to the tops; and Seville oranges are noted all over the world. No country produces a greater variety of aromatic herbs, which renders the taſte of their kids and ſheep ſo exquiſitely delicious. The kingdom of Murcia abounds ſo much with mulberry-trees, that the product of its ſilk amounts to 200,000 l. a year. Upon the

whole, few countries in the world owe more than Spain does to nature, and leſs to induſtry.

The waters (eſpecially thoſe that are medicinal) of Spain, are little known, but many ſalutiferous ſprings are found in Granada, Seville, and Cordoua. All over Spain the waters are found to have ſuch healing qualities, that they are outdone by thoſe of no country in Europe; and the incloſing, and encouraging a reſort to them, grow every day more and more in vogue, eſpecially at Alhamar in Granada.

MOUNTAINS.] It is next to impoſſible to ſpecify theſe, they are ſo numerous; the chief are the Pyrenees, near 200 miles in length, which extend from the bay of Biſcay to the Mediterranean, and divide Spain from France. Over theſe mountains there are only five narrow paſſages to France. The Cantabrian mountains (as they are called) are a kind of continuation of the Pyrenees, and reach to the Atlantic ocean, ſouth of Cape Finiſterre. No Engliſhman ought to be unacquainted with Mount Calpe, now called the Hill of Gibraltar, and in former times, one of the pillars of Hercules; the other, Mount Abyla, lying oppoſite to it in Africa.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] Theſe are the Douro, formerly Durius, which falls into the Atlantic ocean below Oporto in Portugal; the Tajo, formerly celebrated by the name of the Tagus, which falls into the Atlantic ocean below Liſbon; the Guadiana falls into the ſame ocean near Cape Finiſterre; as does the Guadalquivier, now Turio, at St. Lucar; and the Ebro, the ancient Iberus, falls into the Mediterranean ſea below Tortoſa.

Several lakes in Spain, particularly that of Beneventa, abound with fiſhes, particularly excellent trout. The water of a lake near Antiquera is made into ſalt by the heat of the ſun.

BAYS.] The chief bays are thoſe of Biſcay, Ferrol, Corunna (commonly called the Groyne) Vigo, Cadiz, Gibraltar, Carthagena, Alicant, Altea, Valentia, Roſer, and Majorca in that iſland. The harbour of Port-Mahon, in the iſland of Minorca, belongs to England. The ſtrait of Gibraltar divides Europe from Africa.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Spain abounds in both, and in as great variety, and of the ſame kinds, as the other countries of Europe. Cornelian, agate, load-ſtones, jacinths, turquois-ſtones, quickſilver, copper, lead, ſulphur, allum, calamine, chryſtal, marbles of ſeveral kinds, with other ſtones; and even diamonds, emeralds, and amethyſts, are found here. The Spaniſh iron, next to that of Damaſcus, furniſhes the beſt arms in the world; and in former times, brought in a vaſt

vaſt revenue to the crown; the art of working it being here in great perfection. Even to this day, Spaniſh gun-barrels, and ſwords of Toledo, are highly valued. Amongſt the ancients, Spain was celebrated for gold and ſilver mines; and ſilver was in ſuch plenty, that Strabo, who was contemporary with Auguſtus Cæſar, informs us, that when the Carthaginians took poſſeſſion of Spain, their domeſtic and agricultural utenſils were of that metal. Theſe mines have now diſappeared, but whether by their being exhauſted, or through the indolence of the inhabitants in not working them, we cannot ſay; though the latter cauſe ſeems to be the moſt probable.

ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. The Spaniſh horſes, eſpecially thoſe of Andaluſia, are thought to be the handſomeſt of any in Europe, and at the ſame time very fleet and ſerviceable. The king does all he can to monopolize the fineſt breeds for his own ſtables and ſervice. Spain furniſhes likewiſe mules and black cattle; and their wild bulls have ſo much ferocity, that their bull-feaſts were the moſt magnificent ſpectacle the court of Spain could exhibit, nor are they now diſuſed. Wolves are the chief beaſts of prey that peſter Spain, which is well ſtored with all the game and wild fowl that are to be found in the neighbouring countries I have already deſcribed. The Spaniſh ſeas afford excellent fiſh of all kinds, eſpecially anchovies, which are here cured in great perfection.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS. Spain, formerly the moſt populous kingdom in Europe, is now but thinly inhabited. This is owing partly to the great drains of people ſent to America, and partly to the indolence of the natives, who are at no pains to raiſe food for their families. Another cauſe may be aſſigned, and that is, the vaſt numbers of eccleſiaſtics, of both ſexes, who lead a life of celibacy. Other writers have given ſeveral other cauſes, ſuch as their wars with the Moors and final expulſion of that people, but I apprehend that they are in a great meaſure removed by the regulations and checks upon the clergy that have been introduced by his preſent catholic majeſty. Be that as it will, ſome late writers have computed the inhabitants of Spain at 7,000,000 and a half; others ſay that they do not exceed 5,000,000. This calculation, I think, is under-rated, when we reflect on the numerous armies which Spain has raiſed and recruited ſince the beginning of this century.

The perſons of the Spaniards are generally tall, eſpecially the Caſtilians; their hair and complexions ſwarthy, but their countenances are very expreſſive. The court of Madrid has

of late been at great pains to clear their upper lips of muſtachoes, and to introduce among them the French dreſs, inſtead of their black cloaks, their ſhort jerkin, ſtrait breeches, and long Toledo ſwords, which dreſs is now chiefly confined to the lower ranks. The Spaniards, before the acceſſion of the houſe of Bourbon to their throne, affected that antiquated dreſs in hatred and contempt of the French; and the government, probably, will find ſome difficulty in aboliſhing it quite, as the ſame ſpirit is far from being extinguiſhed. An old Caſtilian, or Spaniard, who ſees none above him, thinks himſelf the moſt important being in nature; and the ſame pride is commonly communicated to his deſcendents. This is the true reaſon why ſo many of them are ſo fond of removing to America, where they can retain all their native importance, without the danger of ſeeing a ſuperior.

Ridiculous, however, as this pride is, it is productive of the moſt exalted qualities. It inſpires the nation with generous, humane, and virtuous ſentiments; it being ſeldom found that a Spaniſh nobleman, gentleman, or even trader, is guilty of a mean action. During the moſt embittered wars they have had with England for near 70 years paſt, we know of no inſtance of their taking advantage (as they might eaſily have done) of confiſcating the Britiſh property on board their galleons and Plate fleet, which was equally ſecure in time of war as peace. This is the more ſurprizing, as Philip V. was often needy, and his miniſters were far from being ſcrupulous of breaking their good faith with Great-Britain.

By the beſt and moſt credible accounts of the late war, it appears that the Spaniards in South America gave the moſt humane and noble relief to all Britiſh ſubjects who were in diſtreſs and fell into their hands, not only by ſupplying them with neceſſaries, but money; and treating them in the moſt hoſpitable manner while they remained among them.

Having ſaid thus much, we are carefully to diſtinguiſh between the Spaniſh nobility, gentry, and traders, and their government, who are to be put on the ſame footing with the lower ranks of Spaniards, who are as mean and rapacious as thoſe of any other country. The kings of Spain of the houſe of Bourbon, have ſeldom ventured to employ native Spaniards of great families, as their miniſters. Theſe are generally French or Italians, but moſt commonly the latter, who riſe into power by the moſt infamous arts, and of late times from the moſt abject ſtations. Hence it is that the French kings of Spain, ſince their acceſſion to that monarchy, have been but very indifferently ſerved in the cabinet. Alberoni, who had the greateſt genius among them, embroiled his maſter with all Europe,

Europe, till he was driven into exile and disgrace; and Grimaldi, the last of their Italian ministers, hazarded a rebellion in the capital, by his oppressive and unpopular measures.

The common people who live on the coasts, partake of all the bad qualities that are to be found in other nations. They are an assemblage of Jews, French, Russians, Irish adventurers, and English smugglers; who being unable to live in their own country, mingle with the Spaniards. In time of war, they follow privateering with great success; and when peace returns, they engage in all illicit practices, and often enter into the Irish and Walloon guards in the Spanish service.

The beauty of the Spanish ladies reigns mostly in their novels and romances; for though it must be acknowledged that Spain produces as fine women as any country in the world, yet beauty is far from forming their general character. In their persons, they are commonly small and slender; but they are said to employ vast art in supplying the defects of nature. If we are to hazard a conjecture, we might reasonably suppose that those artifices rather diminish than encrease their beauty, especially when they are turned of 25. Their indiscriminate use of paint, not only upon their faces, but their necks, arms, and hands, undoubtedly disfigures their complexions, and shrivels their skin. It is at the same time universally allowed, that they have great wit and vivacity.

After all I have said, it is more than probable that the vast pains taken by the government of Spain, may at last eradicate those customs and habits among the Spaniards that seem so ridiculous to foreigners. They are universally known to have refined notions and excellent sense; and this, if improved by study and travelling, which they now stand in great need of, would render them superior to the French themselves. Their slow deliberate manner of proceeding, either in council or war, has of late years worn off to such a degree, that during the two last wars, they were found to be as quick both in resolving and executing, if not more so, than their enemies. Their secrecy, constancy, and patience, have always been deemed exemplary; and in several of their provinces, particularly Galicia, Granada, and Andalusia, the common people have, for some time, assiduously applied themselves to agriculture and labour.

Among the many good qualities possessed by the Spaniards, their sobriety in eating and drinking is remarkable. They frequently breakfast, as well as sup in bed; their breakfast is usually chocolate, tea being very seldom drank. Their dinner is generally beef, mutton, veal, pork, and bacon, greens, &c. all boiled together. They live much upon garlic, chives,

ſalad, and radiſhes; which, according to one of their proverbs, are food for a gentleman. The men drink very little wine; and the women uſe water or chocolate. Both ſexes uſually ſleep after dinner, and take the air in the cool of the evenings. Dancing is ſo much their favourite entertainment, that you may ſee a grandmother, mother, and daughter, all in the ſame country dance. Their theatrical exhibitions are generally inſipid and ridiculous bombaſt. The prompter's head appears through a trap door above the level of the ſtage, and he reads the play loud enough to be heard by the audience. Gallantry is a ruling paſſion in Spain. Jealouſy, ſince the acceſſion of the houſe of Bourbon, has ſlept in peace. The nightly muſical ſerenades of miſtreſſes by their lovers are ſtill in uſe. The fights of the cavaliers, or bull-feaſts, are almoſt peculiar to this country, and make a capital figure in painting the genius and manners of the Spaniards. On theſe occaſions, young gentlemen have an opportunity of ſhewing their courage and activity before their miſtreſſes; and the valour of the cavalier is proclaimed, honoured, and rewarded, according to the number and fierceneſs of the bulls he has killed in theſe encounters. Great pains are uſed in ſettling the form and weapons of the combat, ſo as to give a relief to the gallantry of the cavalier. The diverſion itſelf is undoubtedly of Mooriſh original, and was adopted by the Spaniards when upon good terms with that nation, partly through complaiſance, and partly through rivalſhip.

RELIGION.] The horrors of the Romiſh religion, the only one tolerated in Spain, are now almoſt extinguiſhed there, by moderating the penalties of the inquiſition, a tribunal diſgraceful to human nature; but though diſuſed, it is not abrogated; only the eccleſiaſtics and their officers can carry no ſentence into execution without the royal authority: It is ſtill in force againſt the Mooriſh and Jewiſh pretended converts. The Spaniards, however, embrace and practiſe the Roman-catholic religion with all its abſurdities; and in this they have been ſo ſteady, that their king is diſtinguiſhed by the epithet of Moſt Catholic.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] In Spain there are eight archbiſhoprics, and 46 biſhoprics. The archbiſhop of Toledo is ſtiled the Primate of Spain; he is great chancellor of Caſtile; has a revenue of 100,000 l. ſterling per annum. The riches of the Spaniſh churches and convents are the unvarying objects of admiration to all travellers as well as natives; but there is a fameneſs in them all, excepting that they differ in the degrees of treaſure and jewels they contain.

LANGUAGE.] The ground-work of the Spaniſh language, like that of the Italian, is Latin; and it might be called a baſtard Latin, were it not for the terminations, and the exotic words introduced into it by the Moors and Goths, eſpecially the former. It is at preſent a moſt majeſtic and expreſſive language; and it is remarkable, that foreigners who underſtand it the beſt, prize it the moſt. It makes but a poor figure even in the beſt tranſlators; and Cervantes ſpeaks as awkward Engliſh, as Shakeſpear does French. It may, however, be conſidered as a ſtandard tongue, having retained its purity for upwards of 200 years. Their Pater-noſter runs thus; *Padro nueſtro, que eſtas en los cielos, ſanctificade ſea tu nombre; venga tu regno; hagaſe tu voluntad, aſſien la tierra como en el cielo; da nos hoy nueſtro pan cotidiano; y perdona nos nueſtras deudas aſſi como nos otros, perdonamos a nueſtros deudores; y no nos metas en tentacion, mas libra nos de mal, porque tao es le regno; y la potencia; y la gloria per los ſiglos.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Spain has not produced learned men in proportion to the excellent capacities of its natives. This defect may, in ſome meaſure, be owing to their indolence and bigotry, which does not ſuffer them to apply to the ſtudy of the polite arts. Several old fathers of the church were Spaniards; and learning owes a great deal to Iſidore, biſhop of Seville, and cardinal Ximenes. Spain has likewiſe produced ſome excellent phyſicians. Calderoni and Lopez de Vega, have by ſome been put in competition with our Shakeſpear in the drama, where it muſt be owned they ſhew great genius. Such was the gloom of the Auſtrian government, that took place with the emperor Charles V. that the inimitable Cervantes, the author of Don Quixote, liſted in a ſtation little ſuperior to that of a common ſoldier, and died neglected, after fighting bravely for his country at the battle of Lepanto. His ſatire upon knight-errantry, in his adventures of Don Quixote, did as much ſervice to his country, by curing them of that ridiculous ſpirit, as it now does honour to his own memory. He is perhaps to be placed at the head of moral and humorous ſatiriſts.

Toſtatus, a divine, the moſt voluminous perhaps that ever wrote, was a Spaniard; but his works have been long diſtinguiſhed only by their bulk. Herrera, and ſome other hiſtorians, particularly De Solis, have ſhewn great abilities in hiſtory, by inveſtigating the antiquities of America, and writing the hiſtory of its conqueſt by their countrymen. Spain has likewiſe produced many travellers and voyagers to both the Indies, who are equally amuſing and inſtructive. If it ſhould happen that the Spaniards could diſengage themſelves from

their abſtracted metaphyſical turn of thinking, they certainly would make a capital figure in literature.

Some of the Spaniards have diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the polite arts, particularly Murillo, in painting; and not only the cities, but the palaces, eſpecially the Eſcurial, diſcover many ſtriking ſpecimens of their abilities as ſculptors and architects; but neither their names nor works are much known in other parts of Europe.

UNIVERSITIES.] In Spain are reckoned 22 univerſities, ſome make them 24; as, Seville, Granada, Compoſtella, Toledo, Valladolid, Salamanca, Alcala, Siguenza, Valencia, Lerida, Hueſca, Saragoſa, Tortoſa, Oſſuna, Onata, Gandia, Barcelona, Murcia, Taragona, Baeza, Avila, Oriuela, Oviedo, and Palencia.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES ARTIFICIAL AND NATURAL.] The former of theſe conſiſt chiefly of Roman and Mooriſh antiquities. Near Segovia, a grand aqueduct, erected by Trajan, extends over a deep valley between two hills, and is ſupported by a double row of 170 arches. Other Roman aqueducts, theatres, and circi, are to be found at Terragona, Toledo, and different parts of Spain. A ruinous watch-tower near Cadiz, is vulgarly, but erroneouſly, thought to be one of the pillars of Hercules.

The Mooriſh antiquities, eſpecially the palace of Granada, are magnificent and rich: the inſide is overlaid with jaſper and porphyry, and the walls contain many Arabic inſcriptions; the whole is executed in what we improperly call the Gothic taſte, but it is really Saracen, though the Goths of Spain adopted it. Many other noble monuments, erected in the Mooriſh times, remain in Spain, ſome of them in tolerable preſervation, and others exhibiting ſuperb ruins.

Among the natural curioſities, the medicinal ſprings, and ſome noiſy lakes, form a principal part, but we muſt not forget the river Guadiana, which, like the Mole in England, runs under ground, and then is ſaid to emerge.

CHIEF CITIES.] Madrid, though unfortified, it being only ſurrounded by a mud wall, is the capital of Spain, and contains about 300,000 inhabitants. All its grandeur, which the Spaniards blazon with great pomp, does not prevent its being, according to the beſt accounts, a dirty uncomfortable place to live in, eſpecially for ſtrangers. It is ſurrounded with very lofty mountains, whoſe ſummits are always covered with ſnow. The houſes in Madrid are of brick; and are laid out chiefly for ſhew, conveniency being little conſidered; thus you will paſs through uſually two or three large apartments of no uſe, in order to come at a ſmall room at the end where the family ſit. The houſes in general look more like priſons, than the habitations

habitations of people at their liberty; the windows, beſide having a balcony, being grated with iron bars, particularly the lower range; and ſometimes all the reſt. Separate families generally inhabit the ſame houſe, as in Paris and Edinburgh. Foreigners are very much diſtreſſed for lodgings at Madrid, as the Spaniards are not fond of taking ſtrangers into their houſes, eſpecially if they are not catholics. Its greateſt excellency is the cheapneſs of its proviſions, but neither tavern, coffee-houſe, nor news paper, excepting the Madrid gazette, are to be found in the whole city. The boaſted royal palaces round it are deſigned for hunting ſeats, or houſes of retirement for their kings. Some of them contain fine paintings and good ſtatues. The chief of thoſe palaces, are the Buen Retiro, Cuſa de Campo, Aranjuez, and St. Ildefonſo.

The pride of Spain, however, is the Eſcurial, and the natives ſay, perhaps with juſtice, that the building of it coſt more than that of any palace in Europe. The deſcription of this palace forms a ſizeable quarto volume, and it is ſaid, that Philip II. who was its founder, expended upon it 3,300,060 l. ſterling. The Spaniards ſay, that this building, beſides its palace, contains a church, a mauſoleum, cloiſters, a convent, a college, and a library, beſides large apartments for all kinds of artiſts and mechanics, noble walks, with extenſive parks and gardens, beautified with fountains and coſtly ornaments. The fathers that live in the convent are 200, and they have an annual revenue of 12,000 l. The mauſoleum, or burying-place of the kings and queens of Spain, is called the Pantheon, becauſe it is built upon the plan of that temple at Rome, as the church to which it belongs is upon the model of St. Peter's.

Allowing to the Spaniards their full eſtimate of the incredible ſums beſtowed on this palace, and on its furniture, ſtatues, paintings, columns, vaſes, and the like decorations, which are moſt amazingly rich, and beautiful, yet we hazard nothing in ſaying, that the fabric itſelf diſcovers a bad taſte, upon the whole. The conceit of building it in the form of a gridiron, becauſe St. Laurence, to whom it is dedicated, was broiled on ſuch a utenſil, and multiplying the ſame figure through its principal ornaments, could have been formed only in the brain of a taſteleſs bigot, ſuch as Philip II. who erected it to commemorate the victory he obtained over the French (but by the aſſiſtance of the Engliſh forces) at St. Quintin, on St. Laurence's day, in the year 1563. It has been enriched and adorned by his ſucceſſors, but its outſide has a gloomy appearance, and the inſide is compoſed of different ſtructures, ſome of which are maſter-pieces of architecture, but forming a diſa-

greeable

greeable whole. It muſt however be confeſt, that the pictures and ſtatues that have found admiſſion here, are excellent in their kind, and ſome of them not to be equalled even in Italy itſelf.

Cadiz is the great emporium of Spaniſh commerce. It ſtands on an iſland ſeparated from the continent of Andaluſia, without the ſtraits of Gibraltar, by a very narrow arm of the ſea, over which a fortified bridge is thrown, and joins it to the main land. The entrance into the bay is about 500 fathoms wide, and guarded by two forts called the Puntals. The entrance has never been of late years attempted by the Engliſh, in their wars with Spain, becauſe of the vaſt intereſt our merchants have in the treaſures there, which they could not reclaim from the captors.

Seville is, next to Madrid, the largeſt city in Spain, but is greatly decayed both in riches and population. Its manufacturers in wool and ſilk, which formerly amounted to 16,000, are now reduced to 400, and its great office of commerce to Spaniſh America, is removed to Cadiz.

Barcelona, a large trading city containing 15,000 houſes, is ſituated on the Mediterranean facing Minorca, and is ſaid to be the handſomeſt place in Spain.

Notwithſtanding the pride and oſtentation of the Spaniards, their penury is eaſily diſcernible, but their wants are few, and their appetites eaſily ſatisfied. The inferior orders even in the greateſt cities are miſerably lodged, and thoſe lodgings wretchedly furniſhed. The poorer ſorts, both men and women, wear neither ſhoes nor ſtockings. A traveller in Spain muſt carry proviſions and bedding with him, and if perchance he meets with the appearance of an inn, he muſt even cook his victuals, it being beneath the dignity of a Spaniard, to perform theſe offices to ſtrangers; but lately ſome tolerable inns have been opened by Iriſh and Frenchmen in the cities, and upon the highways. The pride, indolence, and lazineſs of the Spaniards, are powerful inducements to their more induſtrious neighbours the French, who are to be found in all parts of the kingdom; and here a wonderful contraſt diſtinguiſhes the character of two neighbouring nations. The Spaniard ſeldom ſtirs from home, or puts his hand to work of any kind. He ſleeps, goes to maſs, takes his evening walk. While the induſtrious Frenchman becomes a thorough domeſtic; he is butcher, cook, and taylor, all in the ſame family; he powders the hair, cuts the corn, wipes the ſhoes, and after making himſelf uſeful in a thouſand different ſhapes, he returns to his native country loaded with dollars, and laughs out the remainder of his days at the expence of his proud benefactor.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The Spaniards, unhappily for themſelves, make gold and ſilver the chief branches both of their exports and imports. They import it from America, from whence they export it to other countries of Europe. Cadiz is the chief emporium for this commerce. "Hither (ſays Mr. Anderſon, in his Hiſtory of Commerce) other European nations ſend their merchandize, to be ſhipped off in Spaniſh bottoms for America, ſheltered (or, as our old Engliſh phraſe has it, coloured) under the names of Spaniſh factors. Thoſe foreign nations have here their agents and correſpondents, and the conſuls of thoſe nations make a conſiderable figure. Cadiz has been ſaid to have the fineſt ſtorehouſes and magazines for commerce of any city in Europe; and to it the flota and galleons regularly import the treaſures of Spaniſh America. The proper Spaniſh merchandize exported from Cadiz to America are of no great value; but the duty on the foreign merchandize ſent thither would yield a great revenue, (and conſequently the profits of merchants and their agents would ſink) were it not for the many fraudulent practices for eluding thoſe duties."

The manufactures of Spain are chiefly of ſilk, wool, copper, and hard-ware. Great efforts have been made by the government to prevent other European nations from reaping the chief advantage of the American commerce; but theſe never can be ſucceſsful, till a ſpirit of induſtry is awakened among the natives, ſo as to enable them to ſupply their American poſſeſſions with their own commodities and merchandize.

Mean while, the good faith and facility with which the Engliſh, French, Dutch, and other nations, carry on this contraband trade, render them greater gainers by it than the Spaniards themſelves are, the clear profits ſeldom amounting to leſs than 20 per cent. This evidently makes it an important concern, that thoſe immenſe riches ſhould belong to the Spaniards rather than to any active European nation: but I ſhall have occaſion to touch this ſubject in the account of America.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Spain, from being the moſt free, is now the moſt deſpotic kingdom in Europe. The monarchy is hereditary, and females are capable of ſucceſſion. It has even been queſtioned, whether his catholic majeſty may not bequeath his crown upon his demiſe, to any branch of the royal family he pleaſes. It is at leaſt certain, that the houſe of Bourbon mounted the throne of Spain, in virtue of the laſt will of Charles II.

The courts or parliaments of the kingdom, which formerly, eſpecially in Caſtile, had greater power and privileges than that

that of England, are now abolished, but some faint remains of their constitution, are still discernible in the government, though all of them are ineffectual, and under the controul of the king.

The privy-council, which is composed of a number of noblemen or grandees, nominated by the king, sits only to prepare matters, and to digest papers for the cabinet-council or junta, which consists of the first secretary of state, and three or four more named by the king, and in them resides the direction of all the executive part of government. The council of war takes cognizance of military affairs only. The council of Castile is the highest law tribunal of the kingdom. The several courts of the royal audiences, are those of Galicia, Seville, Majorca, the Canaries, Saragossa, Valentia and Barcelona. These judge primarily in all causes within 15 miles of their respective cities or capitals, and receive appeals from inferior jurisdictions. Besides these there are many subordinate tribunals, for the police, the finances, and other branches of business.

The government of Spanish America forms a system of itself, and is delegated to viceroys, and other magistrates, who are in their respective districts almost absolute. A council for the Indies is established in Old Spain, and consists of a governor, four secretaries, 22 councellors, besides officers. Their decision is final in matters relating to America. The members are generally chosen from the viceroys and magistrates, who have served in that country. The two great viceroyalties of Peru and Mexico are so considerable, that they are seldom trusted to one person for more than three years, but they are thought sufficient to make his fortune in that time.

The foreign possessions of the crown of Spain, besides those in America, are the towns of Ceuta, Oran, and Masulquivir, on the coast of Barbary in Africa; and the islands of St. Lazaro, the Philippines and Ladrones, in Asia.

The chief islands belonging to Spain in Europe, are those of Majorca, and Yvica, of which we have nothing particular to say. Minorca is indeed a Spanish island, but it was taken by the English in 1708. The Spanish inhabitants enjoy their religion, and particular privileges, to which they are entitled by treaties, and they are said to amount to 27,000.

REVENUES.] The revenues arising to the king from Old Spain, yearly amount to 5,000,000 sterling, though some say eight; and they form the surest support of his government. His American income, it is true, is immense, but it is generally in a manner embezzled or anticipated before it arrives in Old

Old Spain. The king has a fifth of all the silver mines that are worked, but little of it comes into his coffers. He falls upon means, however, in case of a war, or any public emergency, to sequester into his own hands great part of the American treasures belonging to his subjects, who never complain, because they are always punctually repaid with interest. The finances of his present catholic majesty are in excellent order, and on a better footing, both for himself and his people, than those of any of his predecessors.

As to the taxes from whence the internal revenues arise, they are various, arbitrary, and so much suited to conveniency, that we cannot fix them at any certainty. They fall upon all kinds of goods, houses, lands, timber, and provisions; the clergy and military orders are likewise taxed.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The land forces of the crown of Spain, in time of peace, are never fewer than 40,000; but in case of a war, they amount, without prejudice to the kingdom, to 96,000. The great dependence of the king, however, is upon his Walloon or foreign guards. His present catholic majesty has been at great care and expence to raise a powerful marine; and his fleet in Europe and America at present exceeds 50 ships of the line.

ROYAL ARMS, TITLES, NOBILITY AND ORDERS.] Spain formerly comprehended twelve kingdoms, all which, with several others, were by name entered into the royal titles, so that they amounted in all to about 32. This absurd custom is still occasionally continued, but the king is now generally contented with the title of his Catholic majesty. The kings of Spain are inaugurated by the delivery of a sword without being crowned. Their signature never mentions their name, but I THE KING. Their eldest son is called prince of Asturias, and their younger children of both sexes, are by way of distinction called infants or infantas, that is children.

The armorial bearing of the kings of Spain, like their title, is loaded with the arms of all their kingdoms. It is now a shield, divided into four quarters, of which the uppermost on the right hand, and the lowest on the left contain a castle, or, with three towers, for Castile; and in the uppermost on the left, and the lowest on the right, are three lions gules for Leon; with three lillies in the center for Anjou.

The general name for those Spanish nobility and gentry, unmixed with the Moorish blood, is Hidalgo. They are divided into princes, dukes, marquisses, counts, viscounts, and other inferior titles. Such as are created grandees, may stand covered before the king, and are treated with princely distinctions.

diſtinctions. A grandee cannot be apprehended without the king's order; and cardinals, archbiſhops, embaſſadors, knights of the golden fleece, and certain other great dignitaries, both in church and ſtate, have the privilege, as well as the grandees, to appear covered before the king. The knights of the three military orders of St. James, Calatrava, and Alcantara, are eſteemed noblemen; they were inſtituted in the long wars between the Chriſtians and the Moors, as an encouragement to valour; and have large eſtates annexed to their reſpective orders, conſiſting chiefly of towers or territories recovered from the Moors. The order of the golden fleece is generally conferred on princes and ſovereign dukes; but there are no commanderies or revenues annexed to it.

HISTORY.] See Portugal; the two kingdoms being formerly under one head *.

PORTUGAL.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	300	between	37 and 42 north latitude.
Breadth	100		7 and 10 weſt longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded by Spain on the north and eaſt, and on the ſouth and weſt by the Atlantic ocean, being the moſt weſterly kingdom on the continent of Europe.

ANTIENT NAMES AND DIVISIONS.] This kingdom was, in the time of the Romans, called Luſitania. The etymology of the modern name is uncertain. It moſt probably is derived from ſome noted harbour or port, to which Gauls (for ſo ſtrangers are called in the Celtic) reſorted. By the form of the country it is naturally divided into three parts; the north, middle, and ſouth provinces.

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* Charles III. king of Spain, was born in 1716, ſucceeded to the throne in 1759; and has iſſue by his late queen,

1. Maria-Joſepha, born 1744.

2. Maria-Louiſa, born 1745, married 1765, to the archduke Leopold of Auſtria, great duke of Tuſcany, and brother to the preſent emperor of Germany.

3. Philip-Anthony, duke of Calabria, born 1747, declared uncapable of ſucceeding to the throne, on account of an invincible weakneſs of underſtanding.

4. Charles-Anthony, prince of Aſturias, born in 1748, married 1765 to Louiſa-Maria-Thereſa, princeſs of Parma.

5. Ferdinand-Anthony, king of Naples, born in 1751, married 1768, to the archduchеſs Mary-Cardire-Louiſa, ſiſter to the emperor of Germany.

6. Gabriel-Anthony, born in 1752, grand prior of the kingdom of Spain.

7. Anthony-Paſcal, born 1755.

8. Francis-Xavier, born 1757.

	Provinces.	Chief towns.
The North Diviſion contains	Entre Minho	Braga
	Douro and	Oporto and Viana
	Tralos Montes	Miranda and Villa Real.
The Middle Diviſion contains	Beira	Coimbra
		Guarda Caſtel Rodrigo
		LISBON 38-42. N. lat. 8-53. W. lon.
	Eſtremadura	St. Ubes and Leira.
The South Diviſion contains	Entre Tajo	Ebora, or Evara
	Guadiana	Portalegre, Elvas, Beia
	Alentejo	Lagos
	Algarva	Faro, Tavira, and Silves.

SOIL, AIR, AND PRODUCTIONS.] The ſoil of Portugal is not in general equal to that of Spain for fertility, eſpecially in corn, which they import from other countries. Their fruits are the ſame as in Spain, but not ſo high flavoured. The Portugueze wines, when old and genuine, are eſteemed to be friendly to the human conſtitution, and ſafe to drink. Portugal contains mines, but they are not worked; variety of gems, marbles and millſtones, and a fine mine of ſalt-petre, near Liſbon. Their cattle and poultry are but indifferent eating. The air, eſpecially about Liſbon, is reckoned ſoft and beneficial to conſumptive patients; it is not ſo ſearching as that of Spain, being refreſhed from the ſea breezes.

MOUNTAINS.] The face of Portugal is mountainous, or rather rocky, for their mountains are generally barren: the chief are thoſe which divide Algarve from Alentejo; thoſe of Tralos Montes, and the rock of Liſbon, at the mouth of the Tajo.

WATER AND RIVERS.] Though every brook in Portugal is reckoned a river, yet the chief Portugueze rivers are mentioned in Spain, all of them falling into the Atlantic ocean. The Tagus, or Tajo, was celebrated for its golden ſand. Portugal contains ſeveral roaring lakes and ſprings, ſome of them are abſorbent even of the lighteſt ſubſtances, ſuch as wood, cork, and feathers; ſome, particularly one about 45 miles from Liſbon, are medicinal and ſanative; and ſome hot baths are found in the little kingdom, or rather province of Algarve.

PROMONTORIES AND BAYS.] The promontories or capes of Portugal, are Cape Mondego, near the mouth of the river Mondego; Cape Roca, at the north entrance of the river Tajo; Cape Eſpithel, at the ſouth entrance of the river Tajo; and Cape St. Vincent, on the ſouth-weſt point of Algarve. The bays are thoſe of Cadoan, or St. Ubes, ſouth of Liſbon, and Lagos Bay in Algarve.

ANIMALS.] The sea-fish, on the coast of Portugal, are reckoned excellent; on the land, the hogs and kids are tolerable eating. Their mules are sure and serviceable, both for draught and carriage; and their horses, though slight, are lively.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, AND CUSTOMS.] According to the best calculation, Portugal contains near two million of inhabitants. By a survey made in the year 1732, there were in that kingdom, 3,344 parishes, and 1,742,230 lay persons (which is but 522 laity to each parish on a medium) besides about 300,000 ecclesiastics of both sexes.

The modern Portugueze retain nothing of that adventurous enterprizing spirit that rendered their forefathers so illustrious 300 years ago. They have, ever since the house of Braganza mounted the throne, degenerated in all their virtues, though some noble exceptions are still remaining among them, and no people are so little obliged as the Portugueze are to the reports of historians and travellers. Their degeneracy is evidently owing to the weakness of their monarchy, which renders them inactive, for fear of disobliging their powerful neighbours, and that inactivity has proved the source of pride, and other unmanly vices. Treachery has been laid to their charge, as well as ingratitude, and above all, an intemperate passion for revenge. They are, if possible, more superstitious, and, both in high and common life, affect more state than the Spaniards themselves. Among the lower people, thieving is commonly practised, and all ranks are accused of being unfair in their dealings, especially with strangers. It is hard, however, to say what alteration may be made in the character of the Portugueze, by the expulsion of the jesuits, and the diminution of the papal influence among them, but above all, by that spirit of independency, with regard to commercial affairs, upon Great Britain, which, not much to the honour of their gratitude, is now so much encouraged by their court and ministry.

The Portugueze are neither so tall, nor so well made as the Spaniards, whose habits and customs they imitate, only the Portugueze quality affect to be more gayly and richly dressed. The Portugueze ladies are thin and small of stature. Their complexion is olive, their eyes black and expressive, and their features generally regular. They are esteemed to be generous, moderate, and witty. They dress like the Spanish ladies, with much awkwardness and affected gravity, but in general more magnificent, and they are taught by their husbands to exact from their servants an homage, that in other countries is paid

paid only to royal perſonages. The furniture of the houſes, eſpecially of their grandees, is rich and ſuperb to exceſs; and they maintain an incredible number of domeſtics, as they never diſcharge any who ſurvive, after ſerving their anceſtors.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion of Portugal is popery in the ſtricteſt ſenſe. The Portugueze have a patriarch, but formerly he depended entirely upon the pope, unleſs when a quarrel ſubſiſted between the courts of Rome and Liſbon. The power of his holineſs in Portugal has been of late ſo much curtailed, that it is difficult to deſcribe the religious ſtate of that country; all we know is, that the royal revenues are greatly encreaſed at the expence of the religious inſtitutions in the kingdom. The power of the inquiſition is now taken out of the hands of eccleſiaſtics, and converted to a ſtate-trap for the benefit of the crown.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] The archbiſhoprics are thoſe of Braga, Evora, and Liſbon. The firſt of theſe has ten ſuffragan biſhops; the ſecond two; and the laſt ten, including thoſe of the Portugueze ſettlements abroad. The patriarch of Liſbon is generally a cardinal, and a perſon of the higheſt birth.

LANGUAGE.] The Portugueze language differs but little from that of Spain, and that provincially. Their Paternoſter runs thus: *Padre noſſo que eſtas nos Ceos, ſanctificado ſeio o tu nome; venha a nos ten reyno, ſeia feita a tua votade, aſſi nos ceos, commo na terra. O paonoſſa de cadatia, dano lo oie n'eſtodia. E perdoa nos ſeuhor, as noſſas dividas, aſſi como nos perdoamos a os noſſos devedores. E nao nos dexes cahir om tentatio, mas libra nos do mal.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Theſe are ſo few, that they are mentioned with indignation, even by thoſe of the Portugueze themſelves, who have the ſmalleſt tincture of literature. Some efforts, though very weak, have of late been made by the Portugueze, to draw their countrymen from this deplorable ſtate of ignorance; but what their ſucceſs may be, I ſhall not pretend to ſay. It is univerſally allowed that the defect is not owing to the want of genius, but of a proper education. The anceſtors of the preſent Portugueze, were certainly poſſeſſed of more true knowledge, with regard to aſtronomy, geography, and navigation, than all the world beſides, about the middle of the 16th century, and for ſome time after. Camoens, who himſelf was a great adventurer and voyager, was poſſeſſed of a true, but neglected poetical genius.

UNIVERSITIES.] Theſe are Liſbon, Evora and Coimbra; but that of Liſbon ſcarcely deſerves the name of an univerſity.

CURIOSITIES.] The lakes and fountains which have been already mentioned form the chief of these. The remains of some castles in the Moorish taste are still standing. The Roman bridge and aqueduct at Coimbra are almost entire and deservedly admired. The walls of Santareen are said to be of Roman work likewise. The church and monastery near Lisbon, where the kings of Portugal are buried, are inexpressibly magnificent, and several monasteries in Portugal are dug out of the hard rock. To these curiosities we may add, that his present most faithful majesty is possessed of the largest diamond, which was found in Brasil, that ever was perhaps seen in the world.

CHIEF CITIES.] The city of Oporto, consisting of about 50,000 inhabitants, carries on a great trade with England, especially for wines. Lisbon is the capital of Portugal, and is thought to contain 200,000 inhabitants. Great part of it was ruined by an earthquake, which also set the remainder on fire, upon All-Saints-day, 1755. It still contains many magnificent palaces, churches, and public buildings. Its situation (rising from the Tagus in the form of a crescent) renders its appearance at once delightful and superb, and it is deservedly accounted the greatest port in Europe, next to London and Amsterdam. The harbour is spacious and secure, and the city itself is guarded from any sudden attack towards the sea by forts, though they would make but a poor defence against ships of war.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] These, within these seven or eight years, have taken a surprizing turn in Portugal. The enterprizing minister there, has projected many new companies and regulations, which have been again and again complained of, as unjust and oppressive to the privileges which the British merchants formerly enjoyed by the most solemn treaties.

The Portugueze exchange their wine, salt, and fruits, and most of their own materials for foreign manufactures. They make a little linen, and some coarse silk, and woollen, with a variety of straw work, and are excellent in preserving and candying fruit. The commerce of Portugal, though seemingly extensive, proves of little solid benefit to her, as the European nations, trading with her, engross all the productions of her colonies, as well as her own native commodities, as her gold, diamonds, pearls, sugars, cocoa-nuts, fine red wood, tobacco, hides, and the drugs of Brasil; her ivory, ebony, spices, and drugs of Africa and East-India; in exchange for the almost numberless manufactures, and the vast quantity of corn and salt-fish, supplied by those European nations, and by the English North American colonies.

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The Portugueze foreign ſettlements are, however, not only of immenſe value, but vaſtly improvable. They bring gold from their plantations on the eaſt and weſt coaſts of Africa, and likewiſe ſlaves for manufacturing their ſugars and tobacco in Braſil, and their ſouth American ſettlements.

What the value of theſe may be, is unknown perhaps to the Portugueze themſelves, but they certainly abound in all the precious ſtones, and rich mines of gold and ſilver, and other commodities that are produced in the Spaniſh dominions there. It is computed that the king's fifth of gold, ſent from Braſil, amounts annually to 300,000 l. ſterling, notwithſtanding the vaſt contraband trade. The little ſhipping the Portugueze have, is chiefly employed in carrying on the ſlave trade, and a correſpondence with Goa, their chief ſettlement in the Eaſt-Indies, and their other poſſeſſions there.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The crown of Portugal is abſolute, but the nation ſtill preſerves an appearance of its ancient free conſtitution, in the meeting of the cortes or ſtates, conſiſting, like our parliaments, of clergy, nobility and commons. They pretend to a right of being conſulted upon the impoſition of new taxes, but the only real power they have is that their aſſent is neceſſary in every new regulation, with regard to the ſucceſſion. In this they are indulged, to prevent all future diſputes on that account. The ſucceſſion in Portugal may devolve to the female line.

All great preferments, both ſpiritual and temporal, are diſpoſed of in the council of ſtate, which is compoſed of an equal number of the clergy and nobility, with the ſecretary of ſtate. A council of war regulates all military affairs, as the treaſury courts do the finances. The council of the palace is the higheſt tribunal that can receive appeals, but the Caſa da Supplicaçao is a tribunal, from which no appeal can be brought. The laws of Portugal are contained in three duodecimo volumes, and have the civil law for their foundation.

REVENUES AND TAXES.] The revenues of the crown amount to above 3,000,000 and a half ſterling, annually. The cuſtoms and duties on goods exported, and imported, are exceſſive, and farmed out, but if the Portugueze miniſtry ſhould ſucceed in all their ambitious projects, and in eſtabliſhing excluſive companies, to the prejudice of the Britiſh trade, the inhabitants will be able to bear theſe taxes without murmuring. Foreign merchandize pays 23 per cent. on importation, and fiſh from Newfoundland 25 per cent. Fiſh taken in the neighbouring ſeas and rivers pay 27 per cent. and the tax upon lands and cattle that are ſold is 10 per cent. The

king draws a conſiderable revenue from the ſeveral orders of knighthood, of which he is grand maſter. The pope, in conſideration of the large ſums he draws out of Portugal, gives the king the money ariſing from indulgencies and licences to eat fleſh at times prohibited, &c. The king's revenue is now increaſed by the ſuppreſſion of religious orders and inſtitutions.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The Portugueze government depends chiefly for protection on England, and therefore they have for many years ſhamefully neglected both their army and fleet. Their troops in time of peace ought to amount to 14,000, but they are without diſcipline or courage, and their regiments are thin. The preſent king, however, ſince the late invaſion of his dominions by the French and Spaniards, has employed Engliſh and foreign officers, for diſciplining his troops, and repairing his fortifications. The marine of Portugal in 1754, conſiſted only of 12 ſhips of war, who were employed as convoys and carriers, but were quite unprovided for action. The preſent king is preparing to put his fleet upon a more reſpectable footing.

ROYAL TITLES AND ARMS.] The king's titles are, king of Portugal, and the Algarves, lord of Guinea, and of the navigation conqueſt and commerce of Ethiopia, Arabia, Perſia, and Braſil. The laſt king was complimented by the pope, with the title of his moſt Faithful majeſty. That of his eldeſt ſon is prince of Braſil.

The arms of Portugal are, argent, five eſcutcheons, azure, placed croſs-wiſe, each charged with as many beſants as the firſt, placed, ſalter-wiſe, and pointed ſable, for Portugal. The ſhield bordered, gules, charged with ſeven towers, or, three in chief, and two in each flanch. The creſt is a crown, or, under the two flanches, and the baſe of the ſhield appears at the end of it; two croſſes, the firſt flower-de-luce, vert, which is for the order of Avis, and the ſecond petee, gules, for the order of Chriſt; the motto is changeable, each king aſſuming a new one; but it is frequently theſe words, *Pro Rege et Grege*, viz. For the King and the People.

NOBILITY AND ORDERS.] The title and diſtinctions of their nobility are pretty much the ſame with thoſe of Spain. Their orders of knighthood are four; 1. That of Chriſt; 2. The order of James; 3. The order of Avis. All thoſe orders have large commanderies, and revenues annexed to them. The order of Malta has likewiſe 23 commanderies in Portugal.

HISTORY OF SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.] Spain was probably firſt peopled from Gaul, to which it lies contiguous, or from

from Africa, from which it is only ſeparated by the narrow ſtrait of Gibraltar. The Phenicians ſent colonies thither, and built Cadiz and Malaga. Afterwards, upon the riſe of Rome and Carthage, the poſſeſſion of this kingdom became an object of contention between thoſe powerful republics; but at length the Roman arms prevailed, and Spain remained in their poſſeſſion until the fall of that empire, when it became a prey to the Goths.

Theſe, in their turn, were invaded by the Saracens, who, about the end of the 7th century, had poſſeſſed themſelves of the fineſt kingdoms of Aſia and Africa; and not content with the immenſe regions that formerly compoſed great part of the Aſſyrian, Greek, and Roman empires, they croſs the Mediterranean, ravage Spain, and eſtabliſh themſelves in the ſouthern provinces of that kingdom.

Don Pelago is mentioned as the firſt Old Spaniſh prince who diſtinguiſhed himſelf againſt theſe infidels, (who were afterwards known by the name of Moors) and he took the title of king of Aſturia about the year 720.

His ſucceſſes animated other Chriſtian princes to take arms likewiſe, and the two kingdoms of Spain and Portugal for many ages were perpetually embroiled in bloody wars. In the mean while, every adventurer was entitled to the conqueſts he made upon the Moors, till Spain at laſt was divided into 12 or 14 kingdoms; and about the year 1095, Henry of Burgundy was declared, by the king of Leon, count of Portugal; but his ſon, Alphonſo, threw off his dependence on Leon, and declared himſelf king. A ſeries of brave princes gave the Moors repeated overthrows in Spain, till about the year 1475, when all the kingdoms in Spain, Portugal excepted, were united by the marriage of Ferdinand, king of Arragon, and Iſabella, the heireſs, and afterwards queen, of Caſtile, who took Granada, and expelled the Moors and Jews, to the number of 170,000 families, out of Spain. I ſhall, in their proper places, mention the vaſt acquiſitions made at this time to Spain by the diſcovery of America, and the firſt expeditions of the Portugueſe to the Eaſt-Indies, by the diſcovery of the Cape of Good-Hope; but the ſucceſſes of both nations were attended with diſagreeable conſequences.

The expulſion of the Moors and Jews, in a manner depopulated Spain of artiſts, labourers, and manufacturers; and the diſcovery of America not only added to that calamity, but rendered the remaining Spaniards moſt deplorably indolent. To complete their misfortunes, Ferdinand and Iſabella introduced the popiſh inquiſition, with all its horrors, into their

dominions, as a ſafeguard againſt the return of the Moors and Jews.

Charles V. of the houſe of Auſtria, and emperor of Germany, ſucceeded to the throne of Spain, in right of his mother, who was the daughter of Ferdinand and Iſabella. The extenſive poſſeſſions of the houſe of Auſtria in Europe, Africa, and, above all, America, from whence he drew immenſe treaſures, began to alarm the jealouſy of neighbouring princes, but could not ſatisfy the ambition of Charles; and we find him conſtantly engaged in foreign wars, or with his own proteſtant ſubjects, whom he in vain attempted to bring back to the catholic church. At laſt, after a long and turbulent reign, he came to a reſolution that filled all Europe with aſtoniſhment, the withdrawing himſelf entirely from any concern in the affairs of this world, in order that he might ſpend the remainder of his days in retirement and ſolitude *.

Agreeable

* Charles, of all his vaſt poſſeſſions, reſerved nothing for himſelf but an annual penſion of 100,000 crowns; and choſe for the place of his retreat, a vale in Spain, of no great extent, watered by a ſmall brook, and ſurrounded by riſing grounds, covered with loſty trees. He gave ſtrict orders, that the ſtile of the building which he erected there, ſhould be ſuch as ſuited his preſent ſituation, rather than his former dignity. It conſiſted only of ſix rooms, four of them in the form of friars cells, with naked walls; and the other two, each twenty feet ſquare, were hung with brown cloth, and furniſhed in the moſt ſimple manner: they were all level with the ground, with a door on one ſide into a garden, of which Charles himſelf had given the plan, and had filled it with various plants, which he propoſed to cultivate with his own hands. After ſpending ſome time in the city of Ghent in Flanders, the place of his nativity, he ſet out for Zealand in Holland, where he prepared to embark for Spain, accompanied by his ſon, and a numerous retinue of princes and nobility; and taking an affectionate and laſt farewel of Philip and his attendants, he ſat out, on the 17th of Sept. 1556, under convoy of a large fleet of Spaniſh, Flemiſh, and Engliſh ſhips. As ſoon as he landed in Spain, he fell proſtrate on the ground; and conſidering himſelf now as dead to the world, he kiſſed the earth, and ſaid, "Naked came I out of my mother's womb, and naked I now return to thee, thou common mother of mankind." Some of the Spaniſh nobility paid their court to him as he paſſed along to the place of his retreat; but they were ſo few in number, and their attendance was ſo negligent, that Charles obſerved it, and felt for the firſt time, that he was no longer a monarch. But he was more deeply affected with his ſon's ingratitude, who, forgetting already how much he owed to his father's bounty, obliged him to remain ſome weeks upon the road, before he paid him the firſt moiety of that ſmall portion, which was all that he had reſerved of ſo many kingdoms. At laſt the money was paid, and Charles having diſmiſſed a great number of his domeſtics, whoſe attendance he thought would be ſuperfluous, he entered into his humble retreat with twelve domeſtics only. Here he buried in ſolitude and ſilence, his grandeur, his ambition, together with all thoſe vaſt projects which, during half a century, had alarmed and agitated Europe, filling every kingdom in it, by turns, with the terror of his arms, and the dread of being ſubjected to his power. Here he enjoyed, perhaps, more complete ſatisfaction than all his grandeur had ever yielded him. Far from taking any part in the political tranſactions of the princes of Europe, he reſtrained his curioſity even from any enquiry concerning them; and he ſeemed to view the buſy ſcene which he had abandoned, with all the contempt and indifference ariſing from

Agreeable to this reſolution, he reſigned Spain and the Netherlands, with great formality, in the preſence of his principal nobility, to his ſon Philip II. but could not prevail on the princes of Germany to elect him emperor, which they conferred on Ferdinand, Charles's brother, thereby dividing the dangerous power of the houſe of Auſtria into two branches; Spain, with all its poſſeſſions in Africa and the new world, alſo the Netherlands, and ſome Italian ſtates, remained with the elder branch, whilſt the empire, Hungary, and Bohemia fell to the lot of the younger, which they ſtill poſſeſs.

Philip II. inherited all his father's vices, with few of his good qualities. He was auſtere, haughty, immoderately ambitious, and through his whole life a cruel bigot in the cauſe of popery. His marriage with queen Mary of England, an unfeeling bigot like himſelf, his unſucceſsful addreſſes to her ſiſter Elizabeth, his reſentment and unſucceſsful wars with that princeſs, his tyranny in the Low-Countries, the revolt and loſs of the United Provinces, with other particulars of his reign, have been already mentioned.

In Portugal he was more ſucceſsful. That kingdom, after being governed by a race of wiſe and brave princes, fell to Sebaſtian about the year 1557. Sebaſtian loſt his life and a fine army, in a headſtrong, unjuſt, and ill-concerted expedition againſt the Moors in Africa; and ſoon after, Philip united Portugal to his own dominions, though the Braganza family of Portugal pretended to a prior right. By this acquiſition Spain became poſſeſſed of the Portugueze ſettlements in India, ſome of which ſhe ſtill holds.

The deſcendents of Philip proved to be very weak princes; but Philip and his father had ſo totally ruined the antient liberties of Spain, that they reigned almoſt unmoleſted in their own

from his thorough experience of its vanity, as well as from the pleaſing reflection of having diſengaged himſelf from its cares.

New amuſements and new objects now occupied his mind; ſometimes he cultivated the plants in his garden with his own hands; ſometimes he rode out to the neighbouring wood on a little horſe, the only one that he kept, attended by a ſingle ſervant on foot. When his infirmities confined him to his apartment, he either admitted a few gentlemen who reſided in the neighbourhood, and entertained them familiarly at his table; or he employed himſelf in ſtudying the principles and in forming curious works of mechaniſm, of which he had always been remarkably fond. He was particularly curious with regard to the conſtruction of clocks and watches; and having found, after repeated trials, that he could not bring any two of them to go exactly alike, he reflected, it is ſaid, with a mixture of ſurprize and regret on his own folly, in having beſtowed ſo much time and labour on the more vain attempt of bringing mankind to a preciſe uniformity of ſentiment concerning the intricate and myſterious doctrines of religion. And here, after two years retirement, he was ſeized with a fever, which carried him off in the 59th year of his age.

dominions. Their viceroys, however, were at once so tyrannical and insolent over the Portuguese, that in the year 1640, the nobility of that nation, by a well-conducted conspiracy, expelled their tyrants, and placed the duke of Braganza, by the title of John IV. upon their throne; and ever since, Portugal has been a distinct kingdom from Spain.

The kings of Spain, of the Austrian line, failing in the person of Charles II. who left no issue, Philip, duke of Anjou, second son to the Dauphin of France, and grandson to Lewis XIV. mounted that throne, by virtue of his predecessor's will, in the name of Philip V. anno 1701. After a long and bloody struggle with the German branch of the house of Austria, supported by England, he was confirmed in his dignity, at the conclusion of the peace of Utrecht, 1713. And thus Lewis XIV. thro' a masterly train of politics, (for in his wars to support his grandson, as we have already observed, he was almost ruined) accomplished his favourite project of transferring the kingdom of Spain, with all its rich possessions in America and the East-Indies, from the house of Austria to that of his own family of Bourbon; an event which proved fatal to the commerce of Great Britain, especially in the American seas, where a glaring partiality has been shewn to the French nation ever since, and renders our being possessed of a port in the South-Seas of equal importance to that of Gibraltar, at the entrance of the Mediterranean, which serves as a curb on the united strength of France and Spain in Europe.

After a long and turbulent reign, which was disturbed by the ambition of his wife, Elizabeth of Parma, Philip died in 1746, and was succeeded by his son, Ferdinand VI. who, in 1759, died without issue, through melancholy for the loss of his wife. Ferdinand was succeeded by his brother, Charles III. the present king of Spain, son to Philip V. by his wife, the princess of Parma.

The Portuguese could not have supported themselves under their revolt from Spain, had not the latter power been engaged in wars with England and Holland; and upon the restoration of Charles II. of England, that prince having married a princess of Portugal, prevailed with the crown of Spain, in 1668, to give up all pretensions to that kingdom. Alphonso, son to John IV. was then king of Portugal. He had the misfortune to disagree at once with his wife and his brother, Peter, and they uniting their interests, not only forced Alphonso to resign his crown, but obtained a dispensation from the pope for their marriage, which was actually consummated. They had a daughter; but Peter, by a second marriage, had sons, the eldest of whom was John, his successor, and father to his present Portuguese majesty. John, like his father, joined the grand

grand confederacy formed by king William; but neither of them were of much ſervice in humbling the power of France. On the contrary, they had almoſt ruined the allies, by occaſioning the loſs of the great battle of Almanza in 1707. John died in 1750, and was ſucceeded by his ſon, his preſent majeſty. In 1760, the king was attacked by aſſaſſins, and narrowly eſcaped with his life in a ſolitary place near his country palace of Belim. The executions of nobility and others which followed, are ſhocking to humanity, eſpecially as we know of no clear proof againſt the parties. From this conſpiracy is dated the expulſion of the jeſuits (who are ſuppoſed to have been at the bottom of the treaſon) from all parts of his moſt faithful majeſty's dominions. The preſent king having no ſon, his eldeſt daughter was married, by diſpenſation from the pope, to don Pedro, her own uncle, to prevent the crown falling into a foreign family, and the next year, 1761, ſhe was brought to bed of a ſon, called the prince of Beira.

In 1762, when war broke out between Spain and England, the Spaniards, and their allies the French, pretended to force his faithful majeſty into their alliance, and to garriſon his ſea-towns againſt the Engliſh with their troops. The king of Portugal rejected this propoſal, and declared war againſt the Spaniards, who, without reſiſtance, entered Portugal with a conſiderable army, while a body of French threatened it from another quarter. Some have doubted whether any of thoſe courts were in earneſt upon this occaſion, and whether the whole of the pretended war was not concerted to force England into a peace with France and Spain, in conſideration of Portugal's apparent danger. It is certain that both the French and Spaniards carried on the war in a very dilatory manner, and that had they been in earneſt, they might have been maſters of Liſbon long before the arrival of the Engliſh troops to the aſſiſtance of the Portugueſe.

Be that as it will, a few Engliſh battalions put an effectual ſtop, by their courage and manœuvres, to the progreſs of the invaſion. Portugal was ſaved, and a peace was concluded at Fontainbleau in 1763. Notwithſtanding this eminent ſervice performed by the Engliſh to the Portugueſe, who had been often ſaved before in the like manner, the latter, ever ſince that period, cannot be ſaid to have beheld their deliverers with a friendly eye. The moſt captious diſtinctions and frivolous pretences have been invented by the Portugueſe miniſters for cramping the Engliſh trade, and depriving them of their unqueſtionable privileges; not to mention that his moſt faithful majeſty is ſaid now to have become a party in the famous family compact of the houſe of Bourbon.

As

As to Spain, her king is ſo warmly attached to that compact, that he even hazarded his American dominions to ſupport it. War being declared between him and England, the latter took from him the Havannah, in the iſland of Cuba, and thereby rendered herſelf entirely miſtreſs of the navigation of the Spaniſh plate fleets. Many circumſtances concurred to make a peace neceſſary to England, and upon its concluſion, the Havannah was reſtored to Spain.

His preſent catholic majeſty does all he can to oblige his ſubjects to deſiſt from their antient dreſs and manners, and carried his endeavours ſo far, that it occaſioned ſo dangerous an inſurrection at Madrid, as obliged him to part with his miniſter *.

ITALY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 600	between	38 and 47 north latitude.
Breadth 400		7 and 19 eaſt longitude.

THE form of Italy, however, renders it very difficult to aſcertain its extent and dimenſions; for ſome ſay, that according to the beſt accounts it is, from the frontiers of Switzerland to the extremity of the kingdom of Naples, about 750 miles in length; and from the frontiers of the duchy of Savoy, to thoſe of the dominions of the ſtates of Venice, which is its greateſt breadth, about 400 miles, though in ſome parts it is ſcarce 100.

BOUNDARIES.] Nature has fixed the boundaries of Italy; for towards the eaſt it is bounded by the gulph of Venice, or Adriatic ſea; on the ſouth and weſt by the Mediterranean ſea; and on the north, by the lofty mountains of the Alps, which divide it from France and Switzerland.

The whole of the Italian dominions, comprehending Corſica, Sardinia, the Venetian and other iſlands, are divided and exhibited in the following table.

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* Joſeph, king of Portugal, was born in 1714; his queen, Mary-Anne-Victoria, infanta of Spain, in 1716, and have iſſue, beſides three more daughters,

Maria-Frances-Iſabella, princeſs of Brazil, born in 1734, married, 1760, to her uncle, Don Pedro, by whom ſhe has iſſue,

1. Joſeph-Frances Xavier, prince of Beira, born in 1761.
2. John-Maria-Joſepha.

Italy.	Countries Names.	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
To the king of Sardinia	Piedmont	6619	140	98	Turin
	Savoy	3572	87	60	Chambery
	Montferrat	446	40	22	Caſal
	Alleſſandrine	204	27	20	Alexandria
	Oneglia	132	24	7	Oneglia
	Sardinia I.	6600	135	57	Cagliara
To the king of Naples	Naples	22,000	275	120	Naples
	Sicily I.	9400	180	92	Palermo
To the emperor	Milan	5431	155	70	Milan
	Mantua	700	47	27	Mantua
	Mirandola	120	19	10	Mirandola
	Pope's dominions	14,348	235	143	Rome { N. Lat. 41-54. E. Lon. 12-45.
To their reſpective princes	Tuſcany	6640	115	94	Florence
	Maſſa	82	16	11	Maſſa
	Parma	1225	48	37	Parma
	Modena	1560	65	39	Modena
	Piombino	100	22	18	Piombino
	Monaco	24	12	4	Monaco
Republics	Lucca	286	28	15	Lucca
	St. Marino	8			St. Marino
	Genoa	2400	160	25	Genoa
To France	Corſica I.	2520	90	38	Baſtia
To Venice	Venice	8434	175	95	Venice
	Iſtria P.	1245	62	32	Capo d'Iſtria
	Dalmatia P.	1400	135	20	Zara
	Iſles of Dalmatia	1364			
Iſlands in the Venetian dominions	Cephalonia	428	40	18	Cephalonica
	Corfu, or Corcyra	194	31	10	Corfu
	Zant, or Zacynthus	120	23	12	Zant
	St. Maura	56	12	7	St. Maura
	Little Cephalonia	14	7	3	
	Ithaca olim				
	Total—	75,576			

SOIL AND AIR.] The happy ſoil of Italy produces the comforts and luxuries of life in great abundance; each diſtrict has its peculiar excellency and commodity; wines, the moſt delicious fruits, and oil, are the moſt general productions. As much corn grows here as ſerves the inhabitants; and was the ground duly cultivated, the Italians might export it to their neighbours. The Italian cheeſes, particularly thoſe called Parmeſans, and their native ſilk, form a principal part of their commerce. There is here a great variety of air; and ſome parts of Italy bear melancholy proofs of the alterations that accidental cauſes make on the face of nature; for the Campagna di Roma, where the antient Romans enjoyed the moſt ſalubrious air of any place perhaps on the globe, is now almoſt peſtilential through the decreaſe of inhabitants, which has occaſioned a ſtagnation of waters, and putrid exhalations. The air of the northern parts, which lie among the Alps, or in

in their neighbourhood, is keen and piercing, the ground being, in many places, covered with ſnow in winter. The Appennines, which are a ridge of mountains that longitudinally almoſt divide Italy, have great effects on its climate; the countries on the ſouth being warm, thoſe on the north mild and temperate. The ſea-breezes refreſh the kingdom of Naples ſo much, that no remarkable inconveniency of air is found there, notwithſtanding its ſouthern ſituation. In general, the air of Italy may be ſaid to be dry and pure.

MOUNTAINS.] We have already mentioned the Alps and Appennines, which form the chief mountains of Italy. The famous volcano of Mount Veſuvius lies in the neighbourhood of Naples.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The rivers of Italy are the Po, the Var, the Adige, the Trebia, the Arno, the Tiber, which runs through the city of Rome. The famous Rubicon forms the ſouthern boundary between Italy and the antient Ciſalpine Gaul.

The lakes of Italy are, the Maggiore, Lugano, Como, Iſco, and Garda, in the north; the Perugia or Thraſimene, Bracciana, Terni, and Celano, in the middle.

SEAS, GULPHS OR BAYS, CAPES, PROMONTORIES, AND STRAITS.] Without a knowledge of theſe, neither the antient Roman authors, nor the hiſtory, nor geography of Italy, can be underſtood. The ſeas of Italy are, the gulphs of Venice, or the Adriatic ſea. The ſeas of Naples, Tuſcany, and Genoa. The bays or harbours of Nice, Villa Franca, Oneglia, Final, Savona, Vado, Spezzia, Lucca, Piſa, Leghorn, Piombino, Civita Vecchia, Gaeta, Naples, Salerno, Policaſtro, Rhegio, Quilace, Tarento, Manfredonia, Ravenna, Venice, Trieſte, Iſtria, and Fiume; Cape Spartavento del Alice, Otranto, and Ancona; and the ſtrait of Maſſina, between Italy and Sicily.

The gulphs and bays in the Italian iſlands, are thoſe of Fiorenzo, Baſtia, Talada, Porto Novo, Cape Corſo, Bonifacio, and Ferro, in Corſica; and the ſtrait of Bonifacio, between Corſica and Sardinia. The bays of Cagliari and Oriſtagni; Cape de Sardis, Cavello, Monte Santo, and Polo, in Sardinia. The gulphs of Meſſina, Melazzo, Palermo, Mazara, Syracuſe, and Catania; cape Faro, Melazzo, Orlando, Gallo, Trapano, Paſſaro, and Aleſſia, in Sicily; and the bays of Porto Feraio, and Porto Longone, in the iſland of Ebba.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Many places of Italy abound in mineral ſprings, ſome hot, ſome warm, and many of ſulphureous, chalybeat, and medicinal qualities. Many of its mountains

mountains abound in mines that produce great quantities of emeralds, jaſper, agate, porphyry, lapis lazuli, and other valuable ſtones. Iron and copper mines are found in a few places; and a mill for forging and fabricating theſe metals is erected near Tivoli, in Naples. Sardinia is ſaid to contain mines of gold, ſilver, lead, iron, ſulphur, and allum, tho' they are now neglected; and curious chryſtals and coral are found on the coaſt of Corſica. Beautiful marble of all kinds is one of the chief productions of Italy.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND. Beſides the rich vegetable productions mentioned under the article of ſoil, Italy produces citrons, and ſuch quantities of cheſnuts, cherries, plums, and other fruits, that they are of little value to the proprietors.

There is little difference between the animal productions of Italy, either by land or ſea, and thoſe of France and Germany already mentioned.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. Authors are greatly divided on the head of Italian population. This may be owing, in a great meaſure, to the partiality which every Italian has for the honour of his own province. The number of the king of Sardinia's ſubjects in Italy is about 2,300,000. The city of Milan itſelf, by the beſt accounts, contains 300,000, and the duchy is proportionably populous. As to the other provinces of Italy, geographers and travellers have paid very little attention to the numbers of natives that live in the country, and inform us by conjecture only of thoſe who inhabit the great cities. Some doubts have ariſen whether Italy is as populous now as it was in the time of Pliny, when it contained 14,000,000 of inhabitants. I am apt to believe that the preſent inhabitants exceed that number. The Campagna di Roma, and ſome other of the moſt beautiful parts of Italy, are at preſent in a manner deſolate; but we are to conſider that the modern Italians are in a great meaſure free from the unintermitting wars, not to mention the tranſmigration of colonies, which formerly, even down to the 16th century, depopulated their country. Add to this, that the princes and ſtates of Italy now encourage agriculture and manufactures of all kinds, which undoubtedly promotes population; ſo that it may not perhaps be extravagant, if we aſſign to Italy 20,000,000 of inhabitants; but ſome calculations greatly exceed that number. The Italians are generally well proportioned, and have ſuch meaning in their looks, that they have greatly aſſiſted the ideas of their painters. Their women are well ſhaped, and very amorous. The marriage ties, eſpecially

of

of the better ſort, are of very little value in Italy. Every wife has her gallant or cicisbeo, with whom ſhe keeps company, and ſometimes cohabits, with very little ceremony, and no offence on either ſide. This practice is chiefly remarkable at Venice. With regard to the modes of life, the beſt quality of a modern Italian is ſobriety, and contentment under the public government. With great taciturnity they diſcover but little reflection. They are rather vindictive than brave, and more ſuperſtitious than devout. The middling ranks are attached to their native cuſtoms, and ſeem to have no ideas of improvement. Their fondneſs for greens, fruits, and vegetables of all kinds, contributes to their contentment and ſatisfaction; and an Italian gentleman or peaſant can be luxurious at a very ſmall expence. Though perhaps all Italy does not contain five deſcendents of the antient Romans, yet the preſent inhabitants ſpeak of themſelves as ſucceſſors to the conquerors of the world, and look upon the reſt of mankind with contempt.

The dreſs of the Italians is little different from that of the neighbouring countries, and they affect a medium between the French volatility and the ſolemnity of the Spaniards. The Neapolitans are commonly dreſt in black, in compliment to the Spaniards. It cannot be denied that the Italians excel in the fine arts: though they are as yet but deſpicable proficients in the ſciences. They cultivate and enjoy vocal muſic at a very dear rate, by emaſculating their males when young, to which their mercenary parents agree without remorſe.

The Italians, the Venetians eſpecially, have very little or no notion of the impropriety of many cuſtoms that are conſidered as criminal in other countries. Parents, rather than their ſons ſhould throw themſelves away by unſuitable marriage, or contract diſeaſes by promiſcuous amours, hire miſtreſſes for them for a month or a year, or ſome determined time; and concubinage, in many places of Italy, is an avowed licenſed trade. The Italian courtezans or bona robas, as they are called, make a kind of profeſſion in all their cities. Maſquerading and gaming, horſe-races without riders, and converſations or aſſemblies, are the chief diverſions of the Italians, excepting religious exhibitions, in which they are pompous beyond all other nations.

A modern writer, deſcribing his journey through Italy, gives us a very unfavourable picture of the Italians and their manner of living. Give what ſcope you pleaſe to your fancy, ſays he, you will never imagine half the diſagreeableneſs that Italian beds, Italian cooks, and Italian naſtineſs, offer to an Engliſhman. At Turin, Milan, Venice, Rome, and perhaps two

two or three other towns, you meet with good accommodations; but no words can expreſs the wretchedneſs of the other inns. No other beds than thoſe of ſtraw, with a matraſs of ſtraw, and next to that a dirty ſheet, ſprinkled with water, and conſequently damp; for a covering, you have another ſheet as coarſe as the firſt, like one of our kitchen jack-towels, with a dirty coverlit. The bedſtead conſiſts of four wooden forms or benches: an Engliſh peer and peereſs muſt lye in this manner, unleſs they carry an upholſterer's ſhop with them. There are, by the bye, no ſuch things as curtains; and in all their inns, the walls are bare, and the floor has never once been waſhed ſince it was firſt laid. One of the moſt indelicate cuſtoms here is, that men, and not women, make the ladies beds, and would do every office of a maid ſervant, if ſuffered. They never ſcour their pewter; their knives are of the ſame colour. In theſe inns they make you pay largely, and ſend up ten times as much as you can eat. The ſoop, like waſh, with pieces of liver ſwimming in it; a plate full of brains, fried in the ſhape of fritters; a diſh of livers and gizzards; a couple of fowls (always killed after your arrival) boiled to rags, without any the leaſt kind of ſauce or herbage; another fowl, juſt killed, ſtewed as they call it; then two more fowls, or a turkey roaſted to rags. All over Italy, on the roads, the chickens and fowls are ſo ſtringy, you may divide the breaſt into as many filaments as you can a halfpenny-worth of thread. Now and then we get a little piece of mutton or veal, and, generally ſpeaking, it is the only eatable morſel that falls in our way. The bread all the way is exceeding bad, and the butter ſo rancid, that it cannot be touched, or even borne within the reach of our ſmell. But what is a greater evil to travellers than any of the above recited, are the infinite numbers of gnats, bugs, fleas, and lice, which infeſt us by day and night.

Religion.] The religion of the Italians is Roman-catholic. The inquiſition here is little more than a ſound; and perſons of all religions live unmoleſted in Italy, provided no groſs inſult is offered to their worſhip. In the introduction, we have given an account of the riſe and eſtabliſhment of popery in Italy, from whence it ſpread over all Europe; likewiſe of the cauſes and ſymptoms of its decline. The eccleſiaſtical government of the papacy has employed many volumes in deſcribing it. The cardinals, who are next in dignity to his holineſs, are ſeventy, but that number is ſeldom or never complete: they are appointed by the pope, who takes care to have a majority of Italian cardinals, that the chair may not be removed from Rome, as it was once to Avignon in France, the

the then pope being a Frenchman. In promoting foreign prelates to the cardinalſhip, the pope regulates himſelf according to the nomination of the princes who profeſs that religion. His chief miniſter is the cardinal patron, generally his nephew, or near relation, who improves the time of the pope's reign by amaſſing what he can. When met in a conſiſtory, the cardinals pretend to controul the pope, in matters both ſpiritual and temporal, and have been ſometimes known to prevail. The reign of a pope is ſeldom of long duration, being generally old men at the time of their election. The conclave is a ſcene where the cardinals principally endeavour to diſplay their parts, and where many tranſactions paſs which hardly ſhew their inſpiration from the Holy Ghoſt. During the election of a pope in 1721, the animoſities ran ſo high, that they came to blows with both their hands and feet, and threw the inkſtandiſhes at each other. We ſhall here give an extract from the creed of pope Pius IV. 1560, before his elevation to the chair, which contains the principal points wherein the church of Rome differs from the proteſtant churches. After declaring his belief in one God, and other heads wherein Chriſtians in general are agreed, he proceeds as follows.

" I moſt firmly admit and embrace the apoſtolical and eccleſiaſtical traditions, and all other conſtitutions of the ſame church.

" I do admit the holy ſcriptures in the ſame ſenſe that holy mother church doth, whoſe buſineſs it is to judge of the true ſenſe and interpretation of them; and I will interpret them according to the unanimous conſent of the fathers.

" I do profeſs and believe that there are ſeven ſacraments of the law, truly and properly ſo called, inſtituted by Jeſus Chriſt our Lord, and neceſſary to the ſalvation of mankind, though not all of them to every one; namely, baptiſm, confirmation, euchariſt, penance, extreme unction, orders, and marriage, and that they do confer grace; and that of theſe, baptiſm, confirmation, and orders, may not be repeated without ſacrilege. I do alſo receive and admit the received and approved rites of the catholic church in her ſolemn adminiſtration of the aboveſaid ſacraments.

" I do embrace and receive all and every thing that hath been defined and declared by the holy council of Trent * concerning original ſin and juſtification.

" I do

* A convocation of Roman-catholic divines, who aſſembled at Trent, by virtue of a bull from the pope, anno 1546, to determine upon certain points of faith, and to ſuppreſs what they were pleaſed to term the Riſing Hereſies in the church.

" I do alſo profeſs that in the maſs there is offered unto God a true, proper, and propitiatory ſacrifice for the quick and the dead, and that in the moſt holy ſacrament of the euchariſt there is truly, really, and ſubſtantially, the body and blood, together with the ſoul and divinity of our Lord Jeſus Chriſt; and that there is a converſion made of the whole ſubſtance of the bread into the body, and of the whole ſubſtance of the wine into the blood; which converſion the catholic church calls Tranſubſtantiation.

" I confeſs that under one kind only, whole and intire, Chriſt and a true ſacrament is taken and received.

" I do firmly believe that there is a purgatory; and that the ſouls kept priſoners there do receive help by the ſuffrages of the faithful.

" I do likewiſe believe that the ſaints reigning together with Chriſt are to be worſhipped and prayed unto; and that they do offer prayers unto God for us, and that their relics are to be had in veneration.

" I do moſt firmly aſſert, that the images of Chriſt, of the bleſſed Virgin the mother of God, and of other ſaints, ought to be had and retained, and that due honour and veneration ought to be given unto them *.

" I do likewiſe affirm, that the power of indulgence was left by Chriſt to the church, and that the uſe of them is very beneficial to chriſtian people †.

" I

* An Engliſh Traveller ſpeaking of a religious proceſſion ſome years ago at Florence, in Italy, deſcribes it as follows. I had occaſion, ſays he, to ſee a proceſſion, where all the nobleſs of the city attended in their coaches. It was the anniverſary of a charitable inſtitution in favour of poor maidens, a certain number of whom are portioned every year. About two hundred of theſe virgins walked in proceſſion, two and two together. They were preceded and followed by an irregular mob of penitents, in ſack-cloth, with lighted tapers, and monks carrying crucifixes, bawling and bellowing the litanies: but the greateſt object was the figure of the Virgin Mary, as big as the life, ſtanding within a gilt frame, dreſſed in a gold ſtuff, with a large hoop, a great quantity of falſe jewels, her face painted and patched, and her hair frizzled and curled in the very extremity of the faſhion. Very little regard had been paid to the image of our Saviour on the croſs; but when the Lady Mother appeared on the ſhoulders of three or four luſty friars, the whole populace fell upon their knees in the dirt.

† A long liſt of indulgences, or fees of the pope's chancery, may be ſeen in a book printed 150 years ago, by authority of the then pope. It has been tranſlated into Engliſh, under the title of *Rome a great Cuſtom-houſe for Sin*; from which we ſhall give a few extracts.

ABSOLUTIONS.

For him that ſtole holy or conſecrated things out of a holy place, 10 s. 6 d.
For him who lies with a woman in the church, 9 s.
For a layman for *murdering* a layman, 7 s. 6 d.
For him that *killeth* his father, mother, wife, or ſiſter, 10 s. 6 d.
For laying violent hands on a *clergyman*, ſo it be without effuſion of blood, 10 s. 6 d.

"I do acknowledge the holy, catholic, and apoſtolical Roman church, to be the mother and miſtreſs of all churches; and I do promiſe and ſwear true obedience to the biſhop of Rome, the ſucceſſor of St. Peter, the prince of the apoſtles, and vicar of Jeſus Chriſt.

"I do undoubtedly receive and profeſs all other things which have been delivered, defined, and declared by the ſacred canons and œcumenical councils, and eſpecially by the holy ſynod of Trent. And all other things contrary thereto, and all hereſies condemned, rejected, and anathematized by the church, I do likewiſe condemn, reject, and anathematize."

ARCHBISHOPRICS.] There are thirty-eight archbiſhoprics in Italy, but the ſuffragans annexed to them are too indefinite and arbitrary for the reader to depend upon, the pope creating or ſuppreſſing them as he pleaſes.

LANGUAGE.] The Italian language is remarkable for its ſmoothneſs, and the facility with which it enters into muſical compoſitions. The ground-work of it is Latin, and it is eaſily maſtered by a good claſſical ſcholar. Almoſt every ſtate in Italy has a different dialect; and the prodigious pains taken by the literary ſocieties there, may at laſt fix the Italian into a ſtandard

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For a prieſt that keeps a concubine; as alſo his diſpenſation for being irregular, 10s. 6d.
For him that lyeth with his *own mother*, *ſiſter*, or *godmother*, 7s. 6d.
For him that *burns* his neighbour's houſe, 12s.
For him that forgeth the pope's hand, 1l. 7s.
For him that forgeth letters apoſtolical, 1l. 7s.
For him that takes two holy orders in one day, 2l. 6s.
For a king for going to the holy ſepulchre without licence, 7l. 10s.

DISPENSATIONS.

For a baſtard to enter all holy orders, 18s.
For a man or woman that is found hanged, that they may have chriſtian burial, 1l. 7s. 6d.

LICENCES.

For a layman to change his vow of going to Rome to viſit the apoſtolic churches, 18s.
To eat fleſh and white meats in Lent, and other faſting days, 10s. 6d.
That a king or queen ſhall enjoy ſuch indulgences, as if they went to Rome, 15l.
For a queen to adopt a child, 300l.
To marry in times prohibited, 2l. 5s.
To eat fleſh in times prohibited, 1l. 4s.
Not to be tied to faſting days, 1l. 4s.
For a town to take out of a church them (murderers) that have taken ſanctuary therein, 4l. 10s.

FACULTIES.

To abſolve all delinquents, 3l.
To diſpenſe with irregularities, 3l.

ſtandard language. At preſent, the Tuſcan ſtile and writing is moſt in requeſt.

The Lord's Prayer runs thus: *Padre noſtro, che ſei ne cieli, ſia ſanctificato il tuo nome; il tuo regno venga; la tua volunta ſia fatta, ſi come in cielo coſi anche in terra; dacci hoggi il noſtro pane cotidiano; cremitticii noſtri debiti, ſi come noi anchora remittiamo a noſtri debitori; e non indurci in tentatione, ma liberaci dal maligno; perchioche tuo è il regno, e la potenza, e la gloria in ſempiterno.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN, PAINTERS, STATUARIES, ARCHITECTS, AND ARTISTS. In the introduction, we have particularized ſome of the great men which ancient Italy has produced. In modern times, that is, ſince the revival of learning, ſome Italians have ſhone in controverſial learning, but they are chiefly celebrated by bigots of their own perſuaſion. The mathematics and natural philoſophy owe much to Galileo, Torricelli, Malpighi, Borelli, and ſeveral other Italians. Strada is an excellent hiſtorian; and the Hiſtory of the Council of Trent, by Fra. Paoli, is a ſtandard work. Guicciardin, Bentivolio, and Davila, have been much commended as hiſtorians by their ſeveral admirers. Machiavel is equally famous as an hiſtorian, and as a political writer. His comedies are excellent; and the liberality of his ſentiments, for the age in which he lived, is amazing. The greateſt modern genius of Italy in poetry is Taſſo; though ſome have preſumed to put Arioſto in competition with him. Sannazarius, Fracaſtorius, Bembo, Vida, and other natives of Italy, have diſtinguiſhed themſelves by the elegance, correctneſs, and ſpirit of their Latin poetry, many of their compoſitions not yielding to the Claſſics themſelves. Socinus, who has puzzled ſo many orthodox divines, was a native of Italy.

The Italian painters, ſculptors, architects, and muſicians, are unrivalled not only in their numbers, but their excellencies. The revival of learning, after the ſack of Conſtantinople by the Turks, revived taſte likewiſe, and gave mankind a reliſh for truth and beauty in deſign and colouring. Raphael, from his own ideas, aſſiſted by the ancients, ſtruck out a new creation with his pencil, and ſtill ſtands at the head of the painting art. Michael Angelo Buonaroti, united in his own perſon, painting, ſculpture, and architecture. The colouring of Titian has perhaps never yet been equalled. Bramante, Bernini, and many other Italians, carried ſculpture and architecture to an amazing height. Julio Romano, Coreggio, Caraccio, Veroneſe, and others, are, as painters, unequalled in their ſeveral manners. The ſame may be ſaid of Corelli, and other Italians, in muſic. At preſent, Italy cannot juſtly boaſt of any paramount genius in the fine arts.

UNIVERSITIES.] Thoſe of Italy are, Rome, Venice, Florence, Mantua, Padua, Parma, Verona, Milan, Pavia, Bologna, Ferrara, Piſa, Naples, Salerno, and Peruſia.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Italy is the native country of all that is ſtupendous, great, or beautiful, either in antient or modern times. A library might be filled by deſcriptions and delineations of all that is rare and curious in the arts; nor does the bounds of this work admit of mentioning even their general heads. All I can do is to give the reader the names of thoſe objects that are moſt diſtinguiſhed either for antiquity or excellence.

The amphitheatres claim the firſt rank, as a ſpecies of the moſt ſtriking magnificence; that which was erected by Veſpaſian, and finiſhed by Domitian, called the Coloſeo, now ſtands at Rome. The amphitheatre of Verona, erected by the conſul Flaminius, is thought to be the moſt entire of any in Italy. The ruins of other theatres and amphitheatres are viſible in other places. The triumphal arches of Veſpaſian, Septimius Severus, and Conſtantine the Great, are ſtill ſtanding, though decayed. The ruins of the baths, palaces, and temples, particularly that of the Pantheon, anſwer all the ideas we can form of the Roman grandeur. The pillars of Trajan and Antonine, the former 175 feet high, and the latter covered with inſtructive ſculptures, are ſtill remaining. A traveller forgets the devaſtations of the northern barbarians, when he ſees the roſtrated column erected by Duillius, in commemoration of the firſt naval victory the Romans gained over the Carthaginians. The ſtatue of the wolf giving ſuck to Romulus and Remus, with viſible marks of the ſtroke of lightning, mentioned by Cicero; the very original braſs plates containing the laws of the twelve tables; and a thouſand other identical antiquities, ſome of them tranſmitted unhurt to the preſent times; not to mention medals and the infinite variety of ſeals and engraved ſtones which abound in the cabinets of the curious. Many palaces, all over Italy, are furniſhed with buſts and ſtatues fabricated in the times of the republic and the higher empire.

The Appian, Flaminian, and Æmilian roads, the firſt 200 miles, the ſecond 130, and the third 50 miles in length, are in many places ſtill entire; nor is the reader to expect any deſcription of the magnificent ruins of villas, reſervoirs, bridges, and the like, that preſent themſelves all over the country of Italy.

The ſubterraneous conſtructions of Italy are as ſtupendous as thoſe above ground, witneſs the cloacæ and catacombs, or repoſitories

repoſitories for dead bodies, in the neighbourhood of Rome and Naples. It is not above 20 years ſince a painter's apprentice diſcovered the ancient city of Pæſtum or Poſidonia, in the kingdom of Naples, ſtill ſtanding; for ſo indifferent are the country people of Italy about objects of antiquity, that it was a new diſcovery to the learned. An inexhauſtible mine of curioſities are daily dug out of the ruins of Herculaneum, a city lying between Naples and Veſuvius, and ſunk in an earthquake 1700 years ago.

With regard to modern curioſities, they are as bewildering as the remains of antiquity. Rome itſelf contains 300 churches filled with all that is rare in architecture, painting, and ſculpture. Each city and town of Italy contains a proportionable number. The church of St. Peter, at Rome, is the moſt aſtoniſhing, bold, and regular fabric, that ever perhaps exiſted; and when examined by the rules of art, it may be termed faultleſs. The houſe and chapel of Loretto is rich beyond imagination, notwithſtanding the ridiculous romance that compoſes its hiſtory.

The natural curioſities of Italy, though remarkable, are not ſo numerous as its artificial. Mount Veſuvius, near Naples, and Mount Ætna, in Sicily, are remarkable for emitting fire from their tops. Mount Ætna is 60 miles in circumference, and at the top there is a baſon of ſulphur ſix miles round, from whence ſometimes iſſue rivers of melted minerals that run down into the ſea. There is generally an earthquake before any great eruption. In 1693, the port town of Catania was overturned, and 18,000 people periſhed. Between the lakes Agnano and Puzzeli there is a valley called Solfatara, becauſe vaſt quantities of ſulphur are continually forced out of the clifts by ſubterranean fires. The grotto del Canæ is remarkable for its poiſonous ſteams, and is ſo called from their killing dogs that enter it, if forced to remain there. The poiſon of the tarantula, an inſect or ſpider, is well known to be removed only by muſic and dancing; and ſcorpions, vipers, and ſerpents, are common in Apulia.

ARMS.] The chief armorial bearings in Italy, are as follow. The pope, as ſovereign prince over the land of the church, bears for his eſcutcheon, gules, conſiſting of a long headcape, or, ſurmounted with a croſs, pearled and garniſhed with three royal crowns, together with the two keys of St. Peter, placed in ſaltier. The arms of Tuſcany, or, five roundles, gules, two, two, and one, and one in chief, azure, charged with three flower-de-luces, or. Thoſe of Venice, azure, a lion winged, ſejant, or, holding under one of his paws, a book

covered, argent. Laſtly, thoſe of Genoa, argent, a croſs, gules, with a crown cloſed for the iſland of Corſica; and for ſupporters, two griffins, or.

STATES OF ITALY, CONSTITUTION, AND CHIEF CITIES. } Thus far I have been enabled to treat of Italy in general, but I am here conſtrained to deviate from my uſual method. The Italian ſtates are not like the republics of Holland, or Switzerland, or the empire of Germany, cemented by a political confederacy, to which every member is accountable; for every Italian ſtate has diſtinct forms of government, trade, and intereſts. I ſhall be therefore obliged to take a ſeparate view of each, to aſſiſt the reader in forming an idea of the whole.

The duke of SAVOY, or as he is uſually ſtiled, king of SARDINIA, taking his royal title from that iſland, is now a powerful prince in Italy, of which he is called the Janus, or keeper, againſt the French. He has an order of knighthood which is called the Annunciade, inſtituted by the firſt duke of Savoy, to commemorate his brave defence of Rhodes againſt the infidels.

His Sardinian majeſty's capital, Turin, is ſtrongly fortified, and one of the fineſt cities in Europe; but the country of Savoy is mountainous and barren, and its natives are forced to ſeek their bread all over the world. They are eſteemed a ſimble but very honeſt people. The king is ſo abſolute, that his revenues conſiſt of what he pleaſes to raiſe upon his ſubjects. His ordinary income, beſides his own family provinces, cannot be leſs than 500,000 l. ſterling, out of which he maintains 15,000 men in time of peace. During a war, when aſſiſted by foreign ſubſidies, he can bring to the field 40,000 men. The aggrandizement of his preſent Sardinian majeſty is chiefly owing to England, to whom, by his ſituation and neighbourhood, he is a natural ally, for the preſervation of the balance of power in Europe.

The MILANESE, belonging to the houſe of Auſtria, is a moſt formidable ſtate, and formerly gave law to all Italy, when under the government of its own dukes. The fertility and beauty of the country is almoſt incredible. Milan, the capital, and its citadel, is very ſtrong, and furniſhed with a magnificent cathedral in the Gothic taſte, which contains a very rich treaſury, conſiſting chiefly of eccleſiaſtical furniture, compoſed of gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones. The revenue of the duchy is above 300,000 l. annually, which is ſuppoſed to maintain an army of 30,000 men. The natives are fond of literary and political aſſemblies, where they hold forth

almoſt on all ſubjects. With all its natural and acquired advantages, the natives of Milan make but few exports, ſo that its revenue, unleſs the court of Vienna ſhould purſue ſome other ſyſtem of improvement, cannot be much bettered.

The republic of GENOA is vaſtly degenerated from its antient power and opulence, though the ſpirit of trade ſtill continues among its nobility and citizens. Genoa is a moſt ſuperb city. The inhabitants of diſtinction dreſs in black, in a plain, if not an uncouth manner, perhaps, to ſave expences. Their chief manufactures are velvets, damaſks, gold and ſilver tiſſues, and paper. The city of Genoa contains about 150,000 inhabitants (but ſome writers greatly diminiſh that number) among whom are many rich trading individuals. Its maritime power is dwindled down to ſix gallies, and about 600 ſoldiers. The chief ſafety of this republic conſiſts in the jealouſy of other European powers, becauſe to any one of them it would be a moſt valuable acquiſition. The common people are wretched beyond expreſſion, as is the ſoil of its territory. Near the ſea ſome parts are tolerably well cultivated. The government of Genoa is purely ariſtocratical, being entirely veſted in the nobility.

VENICE is one of the moſt celebrated republics in the world, on account both of its conſtitution and former power. It is compoſed of ſeveral fine provinces on the continent of Italy, ſome iſlands in the Adriatic and part of Dalmatia. The city of Venice is ſeated on 72 iſlands at the bottom of the north end of the Adriatic ſea, and is ſeparated from the continent by a marſhy lake of five Italian miles in breadth, too ſhallow for large ſhips to navigate, which forms its principal ſtrength. Venice preſerves the veſtiges of its antient magnificence, but is in every reſpect degenerated except in the paſſion which its inhabitants ſtill retain for muſic and mummery during their carnivals. They ſeem to have loſt their antient taſte for painting and architecture, and to be returning to Gothiciſm. They have however lately had ſome ſpirited differences with the court of Rome, and ſeem to be diſpoſed to throw off their obedience to its head. As to the conſtitution of the republic, to which it is ſaid they owe their independency, we can write little with any preciſion, becauſe it is kept a myſtery to all but the members, and even of them (ſuch are its intricacies and checks) few or none know it perfectly. All we know for certain is, that like Genoa, the government is ariſtocratic, and that the nobility are divided into ſix claſſes, amounting in the whole to 2,500, each of whom, when twenty-five years of age, has a right to be a member of the council. Theſe

elect a doge or chief magiſtrate, in a peculiar manner by ballot, which is managed by gold and ſilver balls. The doge is inveſted with great ſtate, and with emblems of ſupreme authority, but has very little power, and is ſhut up in the city as a priſoner. The government and laws are managed by five different councils of the nobles.

As every Venetian of a noble family is himſelf noble, great numbers of them go about the ſtreets begging, and generally preſent a ſilver or tin box, to ſtrangers, to receive their alms. All the orders are dreſt in black gowns, large wigs and caps, which they hold in their hands. The ceremony of the doge's marrying the Adriatic once a year, by dropping into it a ring, from his bucentaur or ſtate-barge, attended by thoſe of all the nobility, is the moſt ſuperb exhibition in Venice, but not comparable for magnificence to a lord mayor's ſhew. The inhabitants of Venice are ſaid to amount to 200,000. The grandeur and convenience of the city, particularly the public palaces, the treaſury, and the arſenal, are beyond expreſſion. Over the ſeveral canals of Venice, are laid near 500 bridges, the greateſt part of which are ſtone. The Venetians ſtill have ſome manufactures in ſcarlet cloth, gold and ſilver ſtuffs, and above all, fine looking-glaſſes, all which bring in a conſiderable revenue to the owners; that of the ſtate annually is ſaid to amount to 8,000,000 of Italian ducats, each valued at twenty pence of our money. Out of this are defrayed the expences of the ſtate and the pay of the army, which in time of peace conſiſts of 16,000 regular troops, (always commanded by a foreign general,) and 10,000 militia. They keep up a ſmall fleet for curbing the inſolencies of the piratical ſtates of Barbary, and they have among them ſeveral orders of knighthood, the chief of which are thoſe of the Golden Star, ſo called from its badge, which is conferred only on the firſt quality, and the military order of St. Marc, the badge of which is a medal of that apoſtle.

In eccleſiaſtical matters the Venetians have two patriarchs; the authority of one reaches over all the provinces, but neither of them have much power; and both of them are choſen by the ſenate; and all religions, even the Mahometan and Pagan, excepting proteſtants, are here tolerated in the free exerciſe of their religion.

The Venetians live in the perpetual extremes of the moſt infamous debaucheries, or the moſt ridiculous devotion. Prieſts and nuns abandon themſelves to the former, during the carnival, which is chiefly held in St. Marc's place, where ſometimes 15,000 people aſſemble.

The

The principal city of TUSCANY is Florence, which is now poſſeſſed by a younger branch of the houſe of Auſtria, after being long held by the illuſtrious houſe of Medicis, who made their capital the cabinet of all that is valuable, rich, and maſterly in architecture, literature and the arts, eſpecially thoſe of painting and ſculpture. It is thought to contain above 70,000 inhabitants. The beauties and riches of the grand duke's palaces, have been often deſcribed, but all deſcription falls ſhort of their contents, ſo that in every reſpect it is reckoned, after Rome, the ſecond city in Italy. The celebrated Venus of Medici, which, take it all in all, is thought to be the ſtandard of taſte in female beauty and proportion, ſtands in a room called the Tribunal. The inſcription on its baſe mentions its being made by Cleomenes, an Athenian, the ſon of Apollodorus. It is of white marble, and ſurrounded by other maſter-pieces of ſculpture, ſome of which are ſaid to be the works of Praxiteles, and other Greek maſters. Every corner of this beautiful city, which ſtands between mountains covered with olive trees, vineyards, and delightful villas, and divided by the Arno, is full of wonders in the arts of painting, ſtatuary, and architecture. It is a place of ſome ſtrength, and contains an archbiſhop's ſee, and a univerſity. The inhabitants boaſt of the improvements they have made in the Italian tongue, by means of their Academia della Cruſca, and ſeveral other academies are now eſtabliſhed at Florence. Though the Florentines affect great ſtate, yet their nobility and gentry drive a retail trade in wine, which they ſell from their cellar windows, and ſometimes they even hang out a broken flaſk, as a ſign where it may be bought. They deal, beſides wine and fruits, in gold and ſilver ſtuffs. Since the acceſſion of the archduke Peter Leopald, brother to the preſent emperor, to this duchy, a great reformation has been introduced, both into the government, and manufactures, to the great benefit of the finances. It is thought that the great duchy of Tuſcany could bring to the field, upon occaſion, 30,000 fighting men, and that its preſent revenues are above 500,000 l. a year. The other principal towns of Tuſcany, are Piſa, Leghorn, and Sienna; the firſt and laſt are much decayed.

The inhabitants of LUCCA, which is a ſmall free commonwealth, lying on the Tuſcan ſea, in a moſt delightful plain, are the moſt induſtrious of all the Italians. They have improved their country into a beautiful garden, ſo that though they do not exceed 120,000, their annual revenue amounts to 80,000 l. ſterling. Their capital is Lucca, which contains about 40,000 inhabitants, who deal in mercery goods, wines, and

and fruits, especially olives. This republic is under the protection of the house of Austria.

The republic of St. MARINO is here mentioned as a geographical curiosity. Its territories consist of a high, craggy mountain, with a few eminences at the bottom, and the inhabitants boast of having preserved their liberties, as a republic, for 1300 years. It is under the protection of the pope, and the inoffensive manners of the inhabitants, who are not above 5000 in all, with the small value of their territory, have preserved its constitution.

The duchy and city of PARMA, together with the duchies of Placentia and Guastalla, now form one of the most flourishing states in Italy of its extent. The soil of Parma and Placentia are fertile, and produce the richest fruits and pasturages, and contain considerable manufactures of silk. It is the seat of a bishop's see, and an university; and some of its magnificent churches are painted by the famous Coreggio. The present duke of Parma, is a prince of the house of Bourbon, and son to Don Philip the king of Spain's younger brother. This country was lately the seat of a bloody war between the Austrians, Spaniards, and Neapolitans. The cities of Parma and Placentia are enriched with magnificent buildings, but his catholic majesty, on his accession to the throne of Naples, is said to have carried with him thither, the most remarkable pictures, and moveable curiosities. The duke's court is thought to be the politest of any in Italy, and it is said that his revenues exceed 100,000 l. sterling a year, a sum which I am apt to think is exaggerated. The city of Parma is said to contain 50,000 inhabitants.

MANTUA, formerly a rich duchy, bringing to its own dukes 500,000 crowns a year, is now much decayed. The government of it is annexed to that of the Milanese, in possession of the house of Austria. The capital is one of the strongest fortresses in Europe, and contains about 16,000 inhabitants, who boast that Virgil was a native of their country.

The duchy of MODENA (formerly Mutina) is still governed by its own duke, the head of the house of Este, from whom the family of Brunswick descended. The duke is absolute within his own dominions, which are fruitful. The duke is under the protection of the house of Austria, and is a vassal of the empire. His dominions, however, are far from being flourishing, though very improveable, they having been alternately wasted by the late belligerent powers in Italy.

The

The Ecclesiastical State, which contains Rome, formerly the capital of the world, lies about the middle of Italy. The bad effects of Popish tyranny, superstition, and oppression, are here seen in the highest perfection. Those spots, which, under the masters of the world, were formed into so many terrestrial paradises, surrounding their magnificent villas, and enriched with all the luxuries that art and nature could produce, are now converted into noxious pestilential marshes and quagmires; and the Campagna di Roma, that formerly contained a million of inhabitants, affords at present a miserable subsistence to about five hundred. Notwithstanding this, the pope is a considerable temporal prince, and some suppose that his annual revenue amounts to above a million sterling, tho' some authors calculate them to be much higher. When we speak comparatively, the sum of a million sterling is too high a revenue to arise from his territorial possessions; his accidental income, which formerly far exceeded that sum, is now diminished by the suppression of the order of the Jesuits, from whom he drew vast supplies, and the measures taken by the popish powers, for preventing the great ecclesiastical issues of money to Rome. According to the best and latest accounts, the taxes upon the provisions and lodgings, furnished to foreigners, who spend immense sums in visiting his dominions, form now the greatest part of his accidental revenues. From what has happened, within these 20 years past, there is reason to believe that the pope's territories will be reduced to the limits, which the houses of Austria, and Bourbon, shall please to describe. Some late popes have aimed at the improvement of their territories, but their labours have had no great effect. The discouragement of industry and agriculture, seems to be interwoven in the constitution of the papal government, which is vested in proud lazy ecclesiastics. Their indolence, and the fanaticism of their worship, infect their inferiors, who prefer begging, and imposing upon strangers, to industry and agriculture, especially as they must hold their properties, by the precarious tenure of the will of their superiors. In short, the inhabitants of many parts of the ecclesiastical state must perish through their sloth, did not the fertility of their soil spontaneously afford them subsistence. I am here, however, to make one general remark on Italy, which is, that the poverty and sloth of the lower ranks, do not take their rise from their natural dispositions.

This observation is not confined to the papal dominions. The Italian princes affected to be the patrons of all the curious and costly arts, and each vied with the other to make his court the repository of taste and magnificence. This passion disabled

disabled them from laying out money upon works of public utility, or from encouraging the industry, or relieving the wants of their subjects, and its miserable effects are seen in many parts of Italy. The splendour and furniture of churches in the papal dominions, are inexpressible, and partly account for the misery of the subjects. This censure, however, admits of exceptions, even in a manner at the gates of Rome.

Modern Rome contains, within its circuit, a vast number of gardens and vineyards. I have already touched upon its curiosities and antiquities. It stands upon the Tyber, an inconsiderable river, when compared to the Thames, and navigated by small boats, barges and lighters. The castle of St. Angelo, though its chief fortress, would be found to be a place of small strength, were it regularly besieged. The city standing upon the ruins of antient Rome lies much higher, so that it is difficult to distinguish the seven hills on which it was originally built. When we consider Rome, as it now stands, there is the strongest reason to believe that it exceeds antient Rome itself, in the magnificence of its structures; nothing in the old city, when mistress of the would, could come in competition with St. Peter's church, and perhaps many other churches in Rome, exceed in beauty of architecture, and value of materials, utensils and furniture, her antient temples, though it must be acknowledged that the Pantheon must have been an amazing structure. The inhabitants of Rome in 1714, amounted to 143,000. If we consider that the spirit of travelling is much encreased since that time, we cannot reasonably suppose them to be diminished at present.

There is nothing very particular in the pope's temporal government at Rome. Like other princes, he has his guards, or sbirri, who take care of the peace of the city, under proper magistrates, both ecclesiastical and civil. The Campagna di Roma, which contains Rome, is under the inspection of his holiness. In the other provinces he governs by legates and vice legates. He monopolizes all the corn in his territories, and has always a sufficient number of troops on foot, under proper officers, to keep the provinces in awe. The present pope, who has taken the name of Clement XIV. has wisely disclaimed all intention of opposing any arms to the neighbouring princes, but those of prayers and supplications.

I have under the head of religion mentioned the ecclesiastical government of the papacy.

As to the rota, and other subordinate chambers of this complicated jurisdiction, they are too numerous to be even named, and do not fall properly under my plan. Under a government so constituted, it cannot be supposed that the com-

commercial exports of the eccleſiaſtical ſtate are of much value.

Next to Rome, Bologna, the capital of the Bologneſe, is the moſt conſiderable city in the eccleſiaſtical ſtate, and an exception to the indolence of its other inhabitants. The government is under a legate a latere, who is always a cardinal, and changed every three years. The people here live more ſociably and comfortably, than the other ſubjects of the pope; and perhaps their diſtance from Rome, which is 165 miles north-weſt, has contributed to their eaſe. The reſt of the eccleſiaſtical ſtate contains many towns celebrated in antient hiſtory, and even now exhibiting the moſt ſtriking veſtiges of their flouriſhing ſtate about the beginning of the 16th century; but they are at preſent little better than deſolate, though here and there, a luxurious magnificent church and convent may be found, which is ſupported by the toil and ſweat of the neighbouring peaſants.

The grandeur of FERRARA, RAVENNA, RIMINI, URBINO, (the native city of the celebrated painter Raphael) ANCONA, and many other ſtates, and cities, illuſtrious in former times, are now to be ſeen only in their ruins, and antient hiſtory. LORETTO, on the other hand, an obſcure ſpot never thought or heard of, in times of antiquity, is now the admiration of the world, for the riches it contains, and the prodigious reſort to it of pilgrims, and other devotees, from a notion induſtriouſly propagated by the Romiſh clergy, that the houſe, in which the Virgin Mary is ſaid to have dwelt at Nazareth, was carried thither through the air by angels, attended with many other miraculous circumſtances, ſuch as that all the trees, on the arrival of the ſacred manſion, bowed with the profoundeſt reverence; and great care is taken to prevent any bits of the materials of this houſe, from being carried to other places, and expoſed as relicks to the prejudice of Loretto. The image of the Virgin Mary, and of the divine infant, are of cedar, placed in a ſmall apartment, ſeparated from the others by a ſilver balluſtrade, which has a gate of the ſame metal. It is impoſſible to deſcribe the gold chains, the rings, and jewels, emeralds, pearls, and rubies, wherewith this image is loaded, and the angels of ſolid gold, who are here placed on every ſide, are equally enriched with the moſt precious diamonds. To the ſuperſtition of Roman-catholic princes, Loretto is indebted for this maſs of treaſure. It has been matter of ſurprize, that no attempt has yet been made by the Turks upon Loretto, eſpecially as it is badly fortified, and ſtands near the ſea.

The

The king of NAPLES and SICILY, or, as he is more properly called, the King of the Two Sicilies, (the name of Sicily being common to both) is poſſeſſed of the largeſt dominions of any prince in Italy, as they comprehend the ancient countries of Samnium Campania, Apulia, Magna Grecia, and the iſland of Sicily. They are bounded on all ſides by the Mediterranean and the Adriatic, except on the north eaſt, where Naples terminates on the eccleſiaſtical ſtate. The air is hot, and its ſoil fruitful of every thing produced in Italy. The wines called Vino Greco, and Lachrymæ Chriſti, are excellent. The city of Naples its capital, which is extremely ſuperb, and adorned with all the profuſion of art and riches, and its neighbourhood, would be one of the moſt delightful places in Europe to live in, were it not for their vicinity to the volcano of Veſuvius, which ſometimes threaten the city with deſtruction, and the ſoil being peſtered with inſects and reptiles, ſome of which are venomous.

Though above two-thirds of the property of the kingdom are in the hands of the eccleſiaſtics, the proteſtants live here with great freedom; and though his Neapolitan majeſty preſents to his holineſs every year, a palfrey, as an acknowledgment that his kingdom is a fief of the pontificate, yet no inquiſition is eſtabliſhed in Naples. The preſent revenues of that king, amount to above 750,000 l. ſterling a year, but it is more than probable that, by the new eſtabliſhed police purſued by the princes of the houſe of Bourbon, of abridging the influence and revenues of the clergy, his Neapolitan majeſty's annual income will conſiderably exceed a million ſterling. He has a numerous but poor nobility, conſiſting of princes, dukes, marquiſſes, and other high-ſounding titles; and his capital, by far the moſt populous in Italy, contains, at leaſt, 300,000 inhabitants. Through every ſpot of this kingdom the traveller may be ſaid to tread on Claſſic ground, and no country preſents the eye with more beautiful proſpects.

The iſland of SICILY, once the granary of the world for corn, ſtill continues to ſupply Naples, and other parts, with that commodity, but its cultivation, and conſequently fertility, is greatly diminiſhed. Its vegetable, mineral, and animal productions, are pretty much the ſame with thoſe of Italy. Palermo, its capital, is ſaid to contain 120,000 inhabitants, and both that city and Meſſina, carry on a briſk trade.

The iſland of SARDINIA, which gives a royal title to the duke of Savoy, lies about 150 miles weſt of Leghorn. Its capital, Cagliari, is an univerſity, an archbiſhopric, and the ſeat of the viceroy.

viceroy. It is thought that his Sardinian majesty's revenues, from this island, does not exceed 5000 l. sterling a year, though it yields plenty of corn and wine, and has a coral fishery. Its air is bad from its marshes and morasses. It was formerly annexed to the crown of Spain, but at the peace of Utrecht it was given to the emperor, and in 1719 to the house of Savoy.

The island of CORSICA lies opposite the Genoese continent, between the gulph of Genoa and the island of Sardinia, and is best known by the noble stand which the inhabitants have made of late under general Paoli, for their liberty, against their Genoese tyrants, and afterwards the French arms, than from any advantages they enjoy, from nature or situation. Though mountainous and woody, it produces corn, wine, figs, almonds, chesnuts, olives, and other fruits. It has also some cattle and horses, and is plentifully supplied, both by the sea and rivers, with fish. The inhabitants are said to amount to 120,000. Bastia, the capital, is a place of some strength, but other towns of the island, that were in possession of the malecontents, appear to have been but poorly fortified.

CAPEA, ISCHIA, and other islands, on the coasts of Naples and Italy, have nothing to distinguish them, but the ruins of their antiquities, and their being now beautiful summer retreats for their owners.

I shall here mention the isle of MALTA, though it is not properly ranked with the Italian islands. It was formerly called Melita, and is situated in 15 deg E. long. and 45 deg. N. lat. 60 miles south of cape Passaro in Sicily, and is of an oval figure, 20 miles long, and 12 broad. Its air is clear, but excessively hot; the whole island seems to be a white rock covered with a thin surface of earth, which is however amazingly productive of excellent fruit and vegetables, and garden stuff of all kinds. This island, or rather rock, was given to the knights of St. John of Jerusalem in 1530, by the emperor Charles V. when the Turks drove them out of Rhodes, and they are now known by the distinction of the knights of Malta. They are under vows of celibacy and chastity, but they keep the former much better than the latter. They have considerable possessions in the Roman-catholic countries on the continent, and are under the government of a grand-master, who is elected for life. They are considered as the bulwark of Christendom against the Turks on that side. They wear crosses of a particular form, and they never have degene-

rated

rated from the military glory of their predeceſſors. They are generally of noble families, and are ranked according to their nations. Not only their chief town Valetta, or Malta, and its harbour, but their whole iſland is ſo well fortified, as to be deemed impregnable by the infidels.

HISTORY.] Italy was probably firſt peopled from Greece, as we have mentioned in the Introduction, to which we refer the reader, for the antient hiſtory of this country, which, for many ages, gave law to the then known world under the Romans. The ſucceſſors of Charlemagne claimed, and for ſome time poſſeſſed the ſovereignty of Italy, but their civil wars at home, ſoon gave an opportunity to their governors, to either aſſume or purchaſe the ſovereignty of the ſeveral ſtates over which they preſided.

Savoy and Piedmont, in time, fell to the lot of the courts of Maurienne, the anceſtors of his preſent Sardinian majeſty, whoſe father (as I have already obſerved) became king of Sardinia, in virtue of the quadruple alliance concluded in 1718 *.

The Milaneſe, the faireſt portion in Italy, went thro' ſeveral hands; the Viſcontis were ſucceeded by the Galeazzos, and the Sforzas, but fell at laſt into the hands of the emperor Charles V. about the year 1525, who gave it to his ſon Philip II. king of Spain. It remained with that crown till the French were driven out of Italy, in 1706, by the imperialiſts. They were diſpoſſeſſed of it in 1743; but by the emperor's ceſſion of Naples and Sicily, to the preſent king of Spain, it returned to the houſe of Auſtria, who governs it by a viceroy.

The duchy of Mantua was formerly governed by the family of Gonzaga, who adhering to France, the territory was forfeited, as a fief of the empire, to the houſe of Auſtria, which now poſſeſſes it, the laſt duke dying without male iſſue; but Guaſtella was ſeparated from it in 1748, and made part of the duchy of Parma.

The firſt duke of Parma was natural ſon to pope Paul III. the duchy having been annexed to the holy ſee in 1545, by pope Julius II. The deſcendants of the houſe of Farneſe terminated in the late queen dowager of Spain, whoſe ſon, his preſent catholic majeſty, obtained that duchy, and his nephew now holds it with the duchy of Placentia.

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* Charles Emanuel III. king of Sardinia, was born in 1701, and aſcended the throne in 1730. He hath iſſue,

1. Victor-Ame-Maria, duke of Savoy, born in 1726; and married in 1750, to Maria-Antonietta, of Spain, born in 1729.

2. Benedict-Maurice, duke de Chablais, born 1741: and four daughters.

The Venetians were formerly the moſt formidable maritime power in Europe. In 1194, they conquered Conſtantinople itſelf, and held it for ſome time, together with great part of the continent of Europe and Aſia. They were more than once brought to the brink of deſtruction, by the confederacies formed againſt them, among the other powers of Europe, eſpecially by the league of Cambray, in 1509, but were as often ſaved by the diſunion of the confederates. The diſcovery of a paſſage to India, by the cape of Good Hope, gave the firſt blow to their greatneſs, as it loſt them the Indian trade. By degrees the Turks took from them their moſt valuable poſſeſſions, on the continent, and ſo late as the year 1715, they loſt the Morea.

The Genoeſe, for ſome time, diſputed the empire of the Mediterranean ſea, with the Venetians, but were ſeldom or never able to maintain their own independency by land, being generally protected, and ſometimes ſubjected by the French and imperialiſts. Their doge or firſt magiſtrate is crowned king of Corſica, though it does not clearly appear by what title, and that iſland is now ceded to the French by the Genoeſe. The ſucceſsful effort they made in driving the victorious Auſtrians out of their capital, during the war which was terminated by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748, has few parallels in hiſtory, and ſerves to ſhew the effects of deſpair under oppreſſion. At preſent they are poſſeſſed of revenue, barely ſufficient to preſerve the appearance of a ſovereign ſtate.

The great duchy of Tuſcany belonged to the emperors of Germany, who governed it by deputies, to the year 1240, when the famous diſtinctions of the Gwelphs, who were the partizans of the pope, and the Gibellines, who were in the emperor's intereſt, took place. The popes then perſuaded the imperial governors in Tuſcany, to put themſelves under the protection of the church, but the Florentines, in a ſhort time, formed themſelves into a free common-wealth, and bravely defended their liberties againſt both parties by turns. Faction at laſt ſhook their freedom, and the family of Medici, long before they were declared either princes or dukes, in fact governed Florence, though the rights and privileges of the people ſeemed ſtill to exiſt. The Medici, particularly Coſmo, who was deſervedly called the Father of his Country, being in the ſecret, ſhared with the Venetians in the immenſe profits of the Eaſt-India trade, before the diſcoveries made by the Portugueze. His revenue, in ready money, which exceeded that of any ſovereign prince in Europe,

enabled his ſucceſſors to riſe to ſovereign power, and pope Pius V. gave one of his deſcendents Coſmo (the great patron of the arts) the title of great duke of Tuſcany in 1570, which continued in his family to the death of Gaſton de Medicis in 1737, without iſſue. The great duchy was then claimed by the emperor Charles VI. as a fief of the empire, and given to his ſon-in-law, the duke of Lorrain, and late emperor, in lieu of the duchy of Lorrain, which was ceded to France by treaty. Leopold, his ſecond ſon, brother to the preſent emperor, is now grand duke, and Tuſcany aſſumes a new face. Leghorn, which belongs to him, carries on a great trade, and ſeveral ſhips of very conſiderable force are now ſtationed on the Tuſcan coaſts to prevent the depredation of the infidels.

No country has undergone greater viciſſitudes of government than Naples or Sicily, chiefly owing to the inconſtancy of the natives, which ſeems to be incorporated with their air. Chriſtians and Saracens by turns conquered it. The Normans under Tancred drove out the Saracens, and by their connections with the Greeks eſtabliſhed there, while the reſt of Europe was plunged in monkiſh ignorance, a moſt reſpectable monarchy flouriſhing in arts and arms. About the year 1166, the popes being then all powerful in Europe, their intrigues broke into the ſucceſſion of Tancred's line, and Naples and Sicily at laſt came into the poſſeſſion of the French; and the houſe of Anjou, with ſome interruptions, and tragical revolutions, held it till the Spaniards drove them out in 1504, and it was then annexed to the crown of Spain.

The government of the Spaniards was ſo oppreſſive, that it gave riſe to the famous revolt, headed by Maſſaniello, a young fiſherman, without ſhoes or ſtockings. His ſucceſs was ſo ſurprizing, that he obliged the haughty Spaniards to aboliſh the oppreſſive taxes, and to confirm the liberties of the people. Before theſe could be re-eſtabliſhed perfectly, he turned delirious, through his continual agitations of body and mind, and he was put to death at the head of his own mob. Naples and Sicily continued with the Spaniards till the year 1706, when the archduke Charles, afterwards emperor, took poſſeſſion of the kingdom. By virtue of various treaties, which had introduced Don Carlos, the king of Spain's ſon, to the poſſeſſion of Parma and Placentia, a new war broke out in 1733, between the houſes of Auſtria and Bourbon, about the poſſeſſion of Naples, and Don Carlos was received into the capital, where he was proclaimed king of both Sicilies; this was followed by a very bloody campaign, but the farther effuſion of blood was ſtopt by a peace between France and the emperor,

to which the courts of Madrid and Naples at first demurred, but afterwards acceded in 1736, and Don Carlos remained king of Naples.

Upon his accession to the crown of Spain in 1759, it being found, by the inspection of physicians, and other trials, that his eldest son was by nature incapacitated for reigning, he resigned the crown of Naples to his third son, Ferdinand IV. who lately married an archduchess of Austria *.

The history of the Papacy is connected with that of Christendom itself. The most solid foundations for its temporal power were laid by the famous Matilda, countess of Tuscany, and heiress to the greatest part of Italy, who bequeathed a large portion of her dominions to the famous pope Gregory VII. (who, before his accession in 1073, was so well known by the name of Hildebrand.) It is not to be expected, that I am here to enter into a detail of the ignorance of the laity, and the other causes that operated to the aggrandizement of the papacy, previous to the reformation. Even since that æra the state of Europe has been such, that the popes have had more than once great weight in its public affairs, chiefly through the weakness and bigotry of temporal princes, who seem now to be recovering from their religious delusions.

The papal power is evidently now at a low ebb. The order of Jesuits, who are not improperly called its Janissaries, has been exterminated out of France, Spain, Naples, and Portugal; and is but just tolerated in other popish countries. The pope himself is treated by Roman-catholic princes, with very little more ceremony than is due to him as bishop of Rome, and possessed of a temporal principality. This humiliation, it is reasonable to believe, will terminate in a total separation from the holy see of all its foreign emoluments, which even, since the beginning of the present century, were immense, and to the reducing his holiness to the exercise of his ecclesiastical functions as first bishop of Christendom †.

* Ferdinand IV. king of the Two Sicilies, third son of the present king of Spain, was born in 1751, and married 1768, to the archduchess Maria-Caroline-Louisa, sister to the emperor of Germany, born in 1752.

† Francis Laurentius Ganganelli, was elected pope in 1769, and took upon him the name of Clement XIV.

TURKEY.

The Grand Signior's Dominions are divided into

1. TURKEY IN EUROPE.
2. TURKEY IN ASIA.
3. TURKEY IN AFRICA.

TURKEY IN EUROPE.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 1000	between	17 and 40 east longitude.
Breadth 900		36 and 49 north latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Ruſſia, Poland, and Sclavonia, on the north; by Circaſſia, the Black Sea, the Propontis, Helleſpont, and Archipelago, on the eaſt; by the Mediterranean, on the ſouth; by the ſame ſea, and the Venetian and Auſtrian territories on the weſt.

Diviſions.	Subdiviſions.	Chief towns.
On the north coaſt of the Black Sea are the provinces of — —	Crim and Little Tartary, the ancient Taurica Cherſoneſe	Precop Brachiſeria Kaffa
	Budziac Tartary —	Oczakow.
North of the Danube are the provinces of —	Beſſarabia —	Bender Belgorod
	Moldavia, olim Dacia — —	Jazy Chotzim Falczin
	Wallachia, another part of the ancient Dacia —	Tergoviſc.
South of the Danube are	Bulgaria, the eaſt part of the ancient Myſia ——	Widin Nicopoli Siliſtria Scopia
	Servia, the weſt part of Myſia	Belgrade Semendria Niſſa
	Boſnia, part of the antient Illyricum	Seraio.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
On the Bosphorus and Hellespont	Romania, olim Thrace	Constantinople, N.L.41-E.L.29 Adrianople
South of mount Rhodope or Argentum, the north Part of the ancient Greece	Macedonia	Strymon Contessa
	Thessaly, now Janua	Salonichi
	Achaia and Bœotia, now Livadia	Athens Thebes Lepanto.
On the Adriatic sea or Gulph of Venice, the ancient Illyricum	Epirus	Chimæra Butrinto
	Albanea	Durazzo Dulcigno
	Dalmatia	Drino Narenza
	Ragusa republic	Ragusa.
In the Morea, the ancient Peloponnesus, being the south division of Greece, are	Corinthia	Corinth
	Argos	Argos Napoli de Romania
	Sparta	Lacedæmon, now Misitra, on the river Eurotus
	Olympia, where the Games were held	Olympia, or Longinica, on the river Alpheus
	Arcadia	Modon Coron
	Elis	Patras Elis, or Belvidere, on the river Peneus.

SOIL, AIR, SEASONS AND WATER.] Nature has lavished upon the inhabitants of Turkey, all her blessings in those four particulars. The soil, though unimproved, is luxuriant beyond description. The air is salubrious, and friendly to the imagination, unless when it is corrupted from the neighbouring countries, or through the indolence and uncleanness of the Turkish manner of living. The seasons are here regu-

lar, and pleaſant, and have been celebrated from the remoteſt times of antiquity. The Turks are invited to frequent bathings, by the purity and wholeſomeneſs of the water all over their dominions.

MOUNTAINS.] Theſe are the moſt celebrated of any in the world, and at the ſame time often the moſt fruitful. Mount Athos lies on a peninſula, running into the Egean ſea; the mounts Pindus and Olympus, celebrated in Grecian fables, ſeparate Theſſaly from Epirus. Parnaſſus, ſo famous for being conſecrated to the Muſes, is well known. Mount Haenus is likewiſe often mentioned by the poets; but moſt of the other mountains have changed their names, witneſs the mountains Suha, Witoſka, Staras, Plamina, and many others. Even the moſt celebrated mountains above mentioned, have had modern names impoſed upon them, by the Barbarians in their neighbourhood.

SEAS.] The Euxine or Black Sea; the Palus Maeotis, or Sea of Aſaph; the ſea of Marmora, which ſeparates Europe from Aſia; the Archipelago; the Ionian ſea, and the Levant, are ſo many evidences that Turkey in Europe, particularly that part of it where Conſtantinople ſtands, of all other countries had the beſt claim to be miſtreſs of the world.

STRAITS.] Thoſe of the Helleſpont and Boſphorus, are joined to the ſea Marmora, and are remarkable in modern as well as antient hiſtory.

RIVERS.] The Danube, the Save, the Neiſter, the Neiper, and the Don, are the beſt known rivers in this country, though many others have been celebrated by poets and hiſtorians.

LAKES.] Theſe are not extremely remarkable, nor are they mentioned with any great applauſe, either by the antients or moderns. The Lago di Sentari lies in Albania. It communicates with the Lago di Plave, and the Lago di Holti. The Stymphalus, ſo famous for its harpies, and ravenous birds, lies in the Morea; and Peneus, from its qualities, is thought to be the lake from which the Styx, conceived by the antients to be the paſſage into hell, iſſues.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Turkey in Europe contains a variety of all ſorts of mines, and its marbles are eſteemed the fineſt in the world.

VEGETABLES AND PRODUCTIONS.] Theſe are excellent all over the European Turkey, eſpecially when aſſiſted by the ſmalleſt degree of induſtry. Beſides pot and garden herbs of almoſt every kind, this country produces in great abundance and perfection, oranges, lemons, citrons, pomegranates, grapes of an uncommon ſweetneſs, excellent figs, almonds, olives and

and cotton. Beſides theſe, many drugs, not common in other parts of Europe, are produced here.

ANIMALS.] The Theſſalian, or Turkiſh horſes, are excellent both for their beauty and ſervice. The black cattle are large, eſpecially in Greece. The goats are a moſt valuable part of the animal creation to the inhabitants, for the nutrition they afford, both of milk and fleſh. The large eagles which abound in the neighbourhood of Babadagi, furniſh the beſt feathers for arrows for the Turkiſh and Tartan archers, and they ſell at an uncommon price. Partridges are very plentiful in Greece, as are all other kinds of fowls and quadrupedes, all over Turkey in Europe, but the Turks and Mahometans in general, are not very fond of animal food.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Almoſt every ſpot of ground, every river, and every fountain in Greece, preſents the traveller with the ruins of a celebrated antiquity. On the Iſthmus of Corinth, the ruins of Neptune's temple, and the theatre, where the Iſthmean games were celebrated, are ſtill viſible. Athens, which contains at preſent above 10,000 inhabitants, is a fruitful ſource of the moſt magnificent and celebrated antiquities in the world, and to particularize them would be endleſs. I cannot, however, omit mentioning the temple of Minerva, thought by ſome to be the fineſt extant. The temple of the eight winds, and the lantern of Demoſthenes, are ſtill entire. The remains of the temple of the oracle of Apollo, are ſtill viſible at Caſtri, on the ſouth ſide of mount Parnaſſus, and the marble ſteps that deſcend to a pleaſant running water, ſuppoſed to be the renowned Caſtalian ſpring, with the niches for ſtatues in the rock, are ſtill diſcernible. The famous cave of Trophonius is ſtill a natural curioſity in Livadiæ, the old Bœotia.

CITIES.] Conſtantinople, the capital of this great empire, is ſituated on the European ſide of the Boſphorus. It was built upon the ruins of the ancient Byzantium, by the Roman emperor Conſtantine the Great, as a more inviting ſituation than Rome, for the ſeat of empire. It became afterwards the capital of the Greek empire, and having eſcaped the deſtructive rage of the barbarous nations, it was the greateſt as well as the moſt beautiful city in Europe, and the only one during the Gothic ages, in which there remained any image of the antient elegance in manners and arts. While it remained in the poſſeſſion of the Greek emperors, it was the only mart in Europe, for the commodities of the Eaſt-Indies. It derived great advantages from its being the rendezvous of the cruſaders, and being then in the meridian of its glory, the Euro-

pean writers, in the ages of the cruſades, ſpeak of it with aſtoniſhment. "O what a vaſt city is Conſtantinople, (exclaims one when he firſt beheld it) and how beautiful! how many monaſteries are there in it, and how many palaces built with wonderful art! how many manufactures are there in the city amazing to behold! It would be aſtoniſhing to relate how it abounds with all good things, with gold, ſilver, and ſtuffs of various kinds; for every hour ſhips arrive in the port with all things neceſſary for the uſe of man." Conſtantinople is at this day one of the fineſt cities in the world by its ſituation and its port. It is frequently called *the Port*, by way of eminence. The proſpect from it is noble. It abounds with antiquities. The moſque of St. Sophia, once a Chriſtian church, is thought in ſome reſpects to exceed in grandeur and architecture St. Peter's at Rome. The city itſelf is built in a triangular form, with the Seraglio ſtanding on a point of one of the angles, from whence there is a proſpect of the delightful coaſt of the Leſſer Aſia, which is not to be equalled. Both the magnitude and population of Conſtantinople have been greatly exaggerated by credulous travellers. The beſt authors think that it does not contain above 800,000 inhabitants, three-fourths of whom are ſaid to be Greeks and Armenians, and the reſt are Jews and Turks. Others ſuppoſe the inhabitants not to exceed 600,000.

As to the population, manners, religion, government, revenues, learning, military ſtrength, commerce, and manufactures of the Turks, theſe ſeveral heads depending on the ſame principles all over the empire, ſhall be mentioned under Turkey in Aſia.

ISLANDS belonging to TURKEY in EUROPE, being Part of Antient GREECE.

I Shall mention thoſe iſlands chiefly for the uſe of ſuch readers as are converſant with antient hiſtory, of which they make ſo diſtinguiſhed a part,

NEGROPONT, the antient Eubœa, ſtretches from the ſouth-eaſt to the north-weſt, and on the eaſtern coaſt of Achaia or Livadia. It is 90 miles long, and 25 broad. Here the Turkiſh gallies lie. The tides on its coaſts are irregular; and the iſland itſelf abounds in corn, wine, and fruit.

LEMNOS, lies on the north part of the Egean ſea or Archipelago, and is almoſt a ſquare of 25 miles in length and breadth. Though it produces corn and wine, yet its principal riches ariſe from its mineral earth, ſometimes called *terra Lemna*

or

or *figillata*, becauſe it is ſealed up by the Turks, who receive therefrom a conſiderable revenue.

TENEDOS, is remarkable only for its lying oppoſite to old Troy, and its being mentioned by Virgil as the place to which the Greeks retired and left the Trojans in a fatal ſecurity.

SCYROS, is about 60 miles in circumference, and is remarkable chiefly for the remains of antiquity which it contains.

LESBOS, or MYTELINE, is about 60 miles long, and is famous for the number of philoſophers and poets it produced. The inhabitants were formerly noted for their prodigality.

SCIO, or CHIOS, lies about 80 miles weſt of Smyrna, and is about 100 miles in circumference. This iſland, though rocky and mountainous, produces excellent wine, but no corn. It is inhabited by 100,000 Greeks, 10,000 Turks, and above 3,000 Latins. The inhabitants have manufactures of ſilk, velvet, gold and ſilver ſtuffs. The iſland likewiſe produces oil and ſilk, and the lentiſk-tree, or maſtic, from which the government draws its chief revenue. The women of this, and almoſt all the other Greek iſlands, have in all ages been celebrated for their beauty, and their perſons have been the moſt perfect models of ſymmetry to painters and ſtatuaries. They are not, however, renowned for their modeſty or virtue; and even the Greek nuns are ſaid to be laviſh of their favours. Among the poets and hiſtorians ſaid to be born here, the inhabitants reckon Homer, and ſhew a little ſquare houſe, which they call Homer's School. The Greeks pay a capitation tax for the exerciſe of their religion and laws; the rate of the higheſt rank is 10 crowns a-head, the ſecond three, and the meaneſt two and a half, yearly.

SAMOS, lies oppoſite to Epheſus, on the coaſt of the Leſſer Aſia, about ſeven miles from the continent. It is 30 miles long and 15 broad. This iſland gave birth to Pythagoras, and is inhabited by Greek Chriſtians, who are well treated by the Turks, their maſters. The muſcadine Samian wine is in high requeſt; and the iſland, beſides, produces wool, which they ſell to the French; oil, pomegranates, and ſilk. This iſland is ſuppoſed to have been the native country of Juno; and ſome travellers think that the ruins of her temple, and of the antient city Samos, are the fineſt remains of antiquity in the Levant.

To the ſouth of Samos lies PATMOS, about 20 miles in circumference, but ſo barren and dreary, that it may be called a rock

a rock rather than an island. It has, however, a convenient haven; and the few Greek monks who are upon the island, shew a cave where St. John is supposed to have written the Apocalypse.

The CYCLADES islands lie like a circle round Delos, the chief of them, which lies south of the islands Mycone and Tirse, and almost midway between the continents of Asia and Europe. Though Delos is not above six miles in circumference, it is one of the most celebrated of all the Grecian islands, as being the birth-place of Apollo and Diana, the magnificent ruins of whose temples are still visible. This island is almost destitute of inhabitants.

PAROS, lies between the islands of Luxia and Melos. Like all the other Greek islands, it contains the most striking and magnificent ruins of antiquity; but is chiefly renowned for the beauty and whiteness of its marble.

CERIGO, or CYTHEREA, lies south-east of the Morea, and is about 50 miles in circumference, but rocky and mountainous, and chiefly remarkable for being the favourite residence of Venus.

SANTORIN, is one of the most southermost islands in the Archipelago, and was formerly called Calista, and afterwards Thera. Though seemingly covered with pumice-stones, yet, through the industry of the inhabitants, who are about 10,000, it produces barley and wine, with some wheat. One third of the people are of the Latin church, and subject to a popish bishop. Near this island another arose of the same name, from the bottom of the sea, in 1707. At the time of its birth, there was an earthquake, attended with most dreadful lightnings and thunders and boilings of the sea for several days, so that when it arose out of the sea it was a mere volcano, but the burnings soon ceased. It is about 200 feet above the sea, and at the time of its first emerging it was about a mile broad and five miles in circumference, but it has since encreased. Several other islands of the Archipelago appear to have had the like original, but the sea in their neighbourhood is so deep as not to be fathomed.

The famous island of RHODES is situated in the 28th degree of east longitude, and 36 deg. 20 minutes north latitude, about 20 miles south-west of the continent of Lesser Asia, being about 50 miles long, and 25 broad. This island abounds in wine, and many of the necessaries of life, but the inhabitants import their corn from the neighbouring country. The colossus of brass, which anciently stood at the mouth of

its

its harbour, and was 50 fathom wide, was deservedly accounted one of the wonders of the world: one foot being placed on each side of the harbour, ships passed between its legs; and it held in one hand a light-house for the direction of mariners. The face of the colossus represented the sun, to whom this image was dedicated; and its height was about 135 feet. The inhabitants of this island were formerly masters of the sea; and the Rhodian law was the directory of the Romans in maritime affairs. The knights of St. John of Jerusalem, after losing Palestine, took this island from the Turks in 1308, but lost it to them in 1522, and afterwards retired to Malta.

CANDIA, the ancient Crete, is still renowned for its hundred cities, for its being the birth-place of Jupiter, the seat of legislature to all Greece, and many other historical and political distinctions. It lies between 35 and 36 degrees of north latitude, being 200 miles long and sixty broad, almost equally distant from Europe, Asia, and Africa. The famous Mount Ida stands in the middle of the island, and is no better than a barren rock; and Lethe, the river of oblivion, is a torpid stream. Some of the vallies of this island produce wine, fruits, and corn; all of them remarkably excellent in their kinds. The siege of Candia, the capital of the island, in modern times, was far more wonderful and bloody than that of Troy. The Turks invested it in the beginning of the year 1645, and its Venetian garrison, after bravely defending itself till the latter end of September 1669, made, at last, an honourable capitulation. The siege cost the Turks 180,000 men, and the Venetians 80,000.

CYPRUS, lies in the Levant sea, about 30 miles distant from the coasts of Syria and Palestine. It is 150 miles long, and 70 broad, and lies at almost an equal distance from Europe and Africa. It was formerly famous for the worship of Venus, the Cyprian goddess; and during the time of the Crusades, was a rich flourishing kingdom, inhabited by Christians. Its wine, especially that which grows at the bottom of the celebrated Mount Olympus, is the most palatable and richest of all that grows in the Greek islands. Nicosia is the capital, and the see of a Greek archbishop. Famagusta, its ancient capital, has a good harbour; and the natural produce of the island is so rich, that many European nations find their account in keeping consuls residing upon it; but the oppressions of the Turks have depopulated and impoverished it to a surprizing degree, though the revenue they get from it does not exceed 1250 l. a year. Its female inhabitants do not degenerate

nerate from their anceſtors as devotees to Venus; and Paphos, the antient ſeat of pleaſure and corruption, is one of the diviſions of the iſland. Richard I. king of England, ſubdued Cyprus, on account of its king's treachery; and its royal title was transferred to Guy Luſignan, king of Jeruſalem, from whence it paſſed to the Venetians, who ſtill hold that empty honour.

The iſlands in the Ionian ſea are, SAPIENZA, STIVALI, ZANTE, CEPHALONIA, SANTA MAURA, CORFU, and others of ſmaller note, particularly ISOLA DEL COMPARE, which would not deſerve mention, had it not been the ancient Ithaca, the birth-place and kingdom of Ulyſſes.

Thoſe iſlands in general are fruitful. Zante, belonging to the Venetians, has a populous capital of the ſame name, and is a place of conſiderable trade, eſpecially in fruits. Corfu, which is the capital of that iſland, is a place of great ſtrength, and belongs likewiſe to the Venetians, who concern themſelves very little about the welfare or government of thoſe and other iſlands, ſo that the inhabitants, who are generally Greeks, bear a very indifferent character.

ASIA.

AS Aſia exceeds Europe and Africa in the extent of its territories, it is alſo ſuperior to them in the ſerenity of its air, the fertility of its ſoil, the deliciouſneſs of its fruits, the fragrancy and balſamic qualities of its plants, ſpices, and gums; the ſalubrity of its drugs; the quantity, variety, beauty, and value of its gems; the richneſs of its metals, and the fineneſs of its ſilks and cottons. It was in Aſia, according to the ſacred records, that the Allwiſe Creator planted the garden of Eden, in which he formed the firſt man and firſt woman, from whom the race of mankind was to ſpring. Aſia became again the nurſery of the world after the deluge, whence the deſcendants of Noah diſperſed their various colonies into all the other parts of the globe. It was in Aſia that God placed his once favourite people, the Hebrews, whom he enlightned by revelations delivered by the prophets, and to whom he gave the oracles of truth. It was here that the great and merciful work of our redemption was accompliſhed by his divine Son; and it was from hence that the light of his

his glorious gospel was carried with amazing rapidity into all the known nations by his disciples and followers. Here the first Christian churches were founded, and the Christian faith miraculously propagated and watered with the blood of innumerable martyrs. It was in Asia that the first edifices were reared, and the first empires founded, while the other parts of the globe were inhabited only by wild animals. On all these accounts, this quarter claims a superiority over the rest; but it must be owned, that a great change hath happened in that part of it called Turkey, which hath lost much of its antient splendor, and from the most populous and best cultivated spot in Asia, is become a wild uncultivated desert. The other parts of Asia continue much in their former condition, the soil being as remarkable for its fertility, as most of the inhabitants for their indolence, effeminacy, and luxury. This effeminacy is chiefly owing to the warmth of the climate, though in some measure heightened by custom and education; and the symptoms of it are more or less visible, as the several nations are seated nearer or farther from the north. Hence the Tartars, who live near the same latitudes with us, are as brave, hardy, strong, and vigorous, as any European nation. What is wanting in the robust frame of their bodies among the Chinese, Mogul-Indians, and all the inhabitants of the more southern regions, is in a great measure made up to them by the vivacity of their minds, and ingenuity in various kinds of workmanship, which our most skilful mechanics have in vain endeavoured to imitate.

This vast extent of territory was successively governed in antient times by the Assyrians, the Medes, the Persians, and the Greeks; but the immense regions of India and China were little known to Alexander or the conquerors of the antient world. Upon the decline of those empires, great part of Asia submitted to the Roman arms; and afterwards, in the middle ages, the successors of Mahomet, or, as they were usually called, Saracens, founded in Asia, in Africa, and in Europe, a more extensive empire than that of Cyrus, Alexander, or even the Roman when in its height of power. The Saracen greatness ended with the death of Tamerlane; and the Turks, conquerors on every side, took possession of the middle regions of Asia, which they still enjoy. Besides the countries possessed by the Turks and Russians, Asia contains at present three powerful empires, the Chinese, the Mogul, and the Persian, upon which the lesser kingdoms and sovereignties of Asia generally depend. The prevailing form of government in this division of the globe is absolute monarchy. If any of them can be said to enjoy some share of liberty, it

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is the wandering tribes, as the Tartars and Arabs. Many of the Aſiatic nations, when the Dutch firſt came among them, could not conceive how it was poſſible for any people to live under any other form of government than that of a deſpotic monarchy. Turkey, Arabia, Perſia, part of Tartary, and part of India, profeſs Mahometiſm. The Perſian and Indian Mahometans are of the ſect of Hali, and the others of that of Omar; but both own Mahomet for their law-giver, and the Koran for their rule of faith and life. In the other parts of Tartary, India, China, Japan, and the Aſiatic iſlands, they are generally heathens and idolaters. Jews are to be found every where in Aſia. Chriſtianity, though planted here with wonderful rapidity by the apoſtles and primitive fathers, ſuffered an almoſt total eclipſe by the conqueſts of the Saracens, and afterwards of the Turks. Incredible indeed have been the hazards, perils, and ſufferings of popiſh miſſionaries, to propagate their doctrines in the moſt diſtant regions, and among the groſſeſt idolaters; but their labours have hitherto failed of ſucceſs, owing, in a great meaſure, to the avarice and profligacy of the Europeans, who reſort thither in ſearch of wealth and dominion.

The principal languages ſpoken in Aſia are, the modern Greek, the Turkiſh, the Ruſſian, the Tartarian, the Perſian, the Arabic, the Malayan, the Chineſe, and the Japaneſe. The European languages are alſo ſpoken upon the coaſts of India and China.

The continent of Aſia is ſituated between 25 and 180 degrees of eaſt longitude, and between the equator and 80 degrees of north latitude. It is about 4740 miles in length, from the Dardanels on the weſt, to the eaſtern ſhore of Tartary; and about 4380 miles in breadth, from the n t ſouthern part of Malacca, to the moſt northern cape of Nova Zembla. It is bounded by the Frozen Ocean on the north; on the weſt it is ſeparated from Africa by the Red Sea, and from Europe by the Levant or Mediterranean, the Archipelago, the Helleſpont, the ſea of Marmora, the Boſphorus, the Black Sea, the river Don, and a line drawn from it to the river Tobol, and from thence to the river Oby, which falls into the Frozen Ocean. On the eaſt, it is bounded by the Pacific Ocean, or South-Sea, which ſeparates it from America; and on the ſouth, by the Indian Ocean; ſo that it is almoſt ſurrounded by the ſea. The principal regions which divide this country are as follow.

Nations.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief cities.	Diſt. & bearing from London.	Diff. of time from London	Religions.
Ruſſian	The bounds of theſe parts are unlimited, each power puſhing on his conqueſts as far as he can.		Tobolſkoi	2160 N. E.	4 19 bef.	Chriſt. & Pag.
Chineſe			Chynian	4480 N. E.	8 4 bef.	Pagans
Mogulean			Tibet	3780 E.	5 40 bef.	Pagans
Independant			Samercand	2800 E.	4 36 bef.	Pagans
China	1440	1000	Pekin	4320 S. E.	7 24 bef.	Pagans
Moguls	2000	1500	Delly	3720 S. E.	5 16 bef.	Mah. & Pag.
India	2000	1000	Siam or Pegu	5040 S. E.	6 44 bef.	Pagans
Perſia	1300	1100	Iſpahan	2460 S. E.	3 20 bef.	Mahometans
Part of Arabia	1300	1200	Mecca	2640 S. E.	2 52 bef.	Mahometans
Syria	270	160	Aleppo	1860 S. E.	2 20 bef.	Chriſt. & Mah.
Holy Land	210	90	Jeruſalem	1920 S. E.	2 24 bef.	Chriſt. & Mah.
Natolia	750	308	Burſa or Smyrna	1440 S. E.	1 48 bef.	Mahometans
Diarbick or Meſopotamia	560	310	Bagdad	2160 S. E.	2 56 bef.	Mahometans, with ſome few Chriſtians
Turcomania	360	300	Erzerum	1860 S. E.	2 44 bef.	
Georgia	* * *	* * *	Teflis	1920 E.	3 10 bef.	

All the iſlands of Aſia (except Cyprus, already deſcribed, in the Levant, belonging to the Turks) lie in the Pacific or Eaſtern Ocean, and the Indian Seas, of which the principal, where the Europeans trade or have ſettlements, are

Iſlands.	Towns.	Trade with or belong to.
The Japaneſe iſles	Jeddo	Dutch
The Ladrones	Guam	Spain
Formoſa	Tai-ouan-fou	China
The Philippines	Manilla	Spain
The Molucca, or Clove iſles,	Victoria Fort	Dutch
The Banda, or Nutmeg iſles,	Lantor	Dutch
Amboyna, Celebes, Gilolo, &c. (ſurrounding the Molucca and Banda iſles)	Amboyna	Dutch
	Macaſſar	Dutch
	Gilolo	Dutch
The Sunda iſles (Borneo, Sumatra, Java, &c.)	Borneo, Caytongee	All nations
	Achen, Bencoolen	Engliſh and Dutch
	Batavia, Bantam	Dutch
The Andaman and Nicobar iſles	Andaman, Nicobar	All nations
Ceylon	Candy	Dutch
The Maldives	Caridon	All nations
Bombay	Bombay	Engliſh
The Kurile iſles, and thoſe in the ſea of Kamptſchatza, lately diſcovered by the Ruſſians,		Ruſſia.

TURKEY IN ASIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles. Degrees.

Length 1000, Breadth 800 } between { 27 and 46 eaſt longitude. 28 and 45 north latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the Black Sea and Circaſſia, on the north; by Perſia, on the eaſt; by Arabia and the Levant Sea, on the ſouth; and by

by the Archipelago, the Helleſpont, and Propontis, which ſeparate it from Europe, on the weſt.

Diviſions.	Subdiviſions.	Chief towns.
The eaſtern provinces are	1. Eyraco Arabic or Chaldea —	Boſſora and Bagdat.
	2. Diarbec or Meſopotamia —	Diarbec, Orfa, and Mouſoul.
	3. Curdiſtan or Aſſyria — —	Nineveh and Betlis.
	4. Turcomania or Armenia — —	Erzerum and Van.
	5. Georgia, including Mengrelia and Imaretta, and part of Circaſſia — —	Amarchia and Gonie.
Natolia, or the Leſſer Aſia, on the weſt,	1. Natolia Proper —	Burſa, Nici, Smyrna, and Epheſus.
	2. Amaſia —	Amaſia, Trapezond, and Sinope.
	3. Aladulia —	Ajazzo and Marat.
	4. Caramania —	Satalia and Teraſſo.
Eaſt of the Levant Sea,	Syria, with Paleſtine, or the Holy Land	Aleppo, Antioch, Damaſcus, Tyre, Sidon, Tripoli, Scanderoon, and Jeruſalem.

MOUNTAINS.] Theſe are famous in ſacred as well as prophane writings. The moſt remarkable are, Olympus; Taurus and Anti-taurus; Caucaſus and Arrarat; Lebanon; and Hermon.

RIVERS.] The ſame may be obſerved of the rivers, which are the Euphrates; Tigris; Orantes; Meander; Sarabat; Kara; and, Jordan.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] Though both are delightful in the utmoſt degree, and naturally ſalubrious to the human conſtitution, yet ſuch is the equality with which the Author of nature has diſpenſed his benefits, that Turkey, both in Europe and Aſia, is often viſited by the plague; a frightful ſcourge of mankind, wherever it takes place, but here doubly deſtructive, from the native indolence of the Turks, and their ſuperſtitious belief in predeſtination, which prevents them from uſing precaution to defend themſelves againſt this calamity.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] As this country contains the moſt fertile provinces of Aſia, I need ſcarcely inform the reader that it produces all the luxuries of life in the utmoſt abundance,

dance, notwithſtanding the indolence of its owners. Raw ſilk, corn, wine, oil, honey, fruit of every ſpecies, coffee, myrrh, frankincenſe, and odoriferous plants and drugs, are natives here almoſt without culture, which is practiſed chiefly by Greek and Armenian Chriſtians. The olives, citrons, lemons, oranges, figs, and dates, produced in thoſe provinces, are highly delicious, and in ſuch plenty, that they coſt the inhabitants a mere triſle, and it is ſaid, in ſome places nothing. Their aſparagus is often as large as a man's leg, and their grapes far exceed thoſe of other countries in largeneſs. In ſhort, nature has brought all her productions here to the higheſt perfection.

ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. The ſame may be ſaid of their animals. The breed of the Turkiſh and Arabian horſes, the latter eſpecially, are valuable beyond any in the world, and have conſiderably improved that of the Engliſh. We know of no quadrupeds that are peculiar to thoſe countries, but they contain all that are neceſſary for the uſe of mankind. Camels are here in much requeſt, from their ſtrength, their agility, and, above all, their moderation in eating and drinking, which is greater than that of any other known animal. Their numerous herds of goats furniſh the materials for their camblets. Their kids and ſheep are exquiſite eating, and are ſaid to ſurpaſs, in flavour and taſte, thoſe of Europe; but their other butchers meat, beef particularly, is not ſo fine.

As to birds, they have wild fowl in vaſt perfection; their oſtriches are well known by their tallneſs, ſtupidity, and heavineſs. The Roman epicures prized no fiſh except lampreys, mullets, and oyſters, but thoſe that were found in Aſia.

METALS AND MINERALS.] This country contains all the metals that are to be found in the richeſt kingdoms and provinces of Europe; and its medicinal ſprings and baths exceed thoſe of any in the known world.

OF THE TURKS IN EUROPE AND ASIA.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS AND DIVERSIONS. THE population of this great country is by no means equal either to its extent or fertility, nor have the beſt geographers been able to aſcertain it, becauſe of the uncertainty of its limits. It certainly is not ſo great as it was before the Chriſtian æra, or even under the Roman emperors; owing to various cauſes, and above all, to the tyranny under which the natives live, and their polygamy, which is undoubtedly an

enemy to population, as may be evinced from many reaſons, and particularly becauſe the Greeks and Armenians, among whom it is not practiſed, are incomparably more prolific than the Turks, notwithſtanding the rigid ſubjection in which they are kept by the latter. The plague is another cauſe of depopulation. The Turkiſh emperor, however, has more ſubjects than any two European princes.

As to the inhabitants, they are generally well made and robuſt men: when young their complexions are fair, and their faces handſome; their hair and eyes are black or dark brown. The women, when young, are commonly handſome, but they generally look old at thirty. In their demeanour, the Turks are rather hypochondriac, grave, ſedate, and paſſive; but when agitated by paſſion, furious, raging, ungovernable; big with diſſimulation, jealous, ſuſpicious, and vindictive beyond conception: in matters of religion, tenacious, ſuperſtitious, and moroſe. Though uncapable of much benevolence, or even humanity with regard to Jews, Chriſtians, or any who differ from them in religious matters, they are not devoid of ſocial affections for thoſe of their own religion. But intereſt is their ſupreme good, and when that comes in competition, all ties of religion, conſanguinity, or friendſhip, are ſpeedily diſſolved. The morals of the Aſiatic Turks are far preferable to thoſe of the European. They are hoſpitable to ſtrangers; and the vices of avarice and inhumanity reign chiefly among their great men. They are likewiſe ſaid to be charitable to one another, and punctual in their dealings. Their charity and public ſpirit is moſt conſpicuous in their building caravanſeras or places of entertainment on roads that are deſtitute of accommodations, for the refreſhment of poor pilgrims or travellers. With the ſame laudable view, they ſearch out the beſt ſprings, and dig wells, which in thoſe countries is a luxury to weary travellers. The Turks ſit croſs-legged upon mats, not only at their meals but in company. Their ideas, except what they acquire from opium, are ſimple and confined, ſeldom reaching without the walls of their own houſes, where they ſit converſing with their women, drinking coffee, ſmoaking tobacco, or chewing opium. They have little curioſity to be informed of the ſtate of their own, or any other country. If a viſier, baſhaw, or other officer, is turned out, or ſtrangled, they ſay no more on the occaſion, than that there will be a new viſier or governor, ſeldom enquiring into the reaſon of the diſgrace of the former miniſter. They are perfect ſtrangers to wit and agreeable converſation. They have few printed books, and ſeldom read any other than the Alcoran, and the comments

comments upon it. Nothing is negociated in Turkey without preſents; and here juſtice may be bought and ſold.

The Turks dine about eleven o'clock in the forenoon, and they ſup at five in the winter and ſix in the ſummer, and this is their principal meal. Among the great people, their diſhes are ſerved up one by one; but they have neither knife nor fork, and they are not permitted by their religion to uſe gold or ſilver ſpoons. Their victuals are always high ſeaſoned. Rice is the common food of the lower ſort, ſometimes it is boiled up with gravy; but their chief diſh is pilau, which is mutton and fowl boiled to rags, and the rice being boiled quite dry, the ſoup is high ſeaſoned, and poured upon it. They drink water, ſherbet, and coffee; and the only debauch they know is in opium, which gives them ſenſations reſembling thoſe of intoxication. Gueſts of high rank ſometimes have their beards perfumed by a female ſlave of the family. They are temperate and ſober from a principle of their religion, which forbids them the uſe of wine; though in private many of them indulge themſelves in the uſe of ſtrong liquors. Their common ſalutation is by an inclination of the head, and laying their right hand on their breaſt. They ſleep, in linen waiſtcoats and drawers, upon mattreſſes, and cover themſelves with a quilt. Few or none of the conſiderable inhabitants of this vaſt empire have any notion of walking or riding either for health or diverſion. The moſt religious among them find, however, ſufficient exerciſe when they conform themſelves to the frequent oblations, prayers, and rites preſcribed them by Mahomet.

Their active diverſions conſiſt in ſhooting at a mark, or tilting it with darts, at which they are very expert. Some of their great men are fond of hunting, and take the field with numerous equipages, which are joined by their inferiors; but this is often done for political purpoſes, that they may know the ſtrength of their dependants. Within doors, the cheſs or draught-board are their uſual amuſements; and if they play at chance games, they never bet money, that being prohibited by the Alcoran.

DRESS.] The men ſhave their heads, leaving a lock on the crown, and wear their beards long. They cover their heads with a turban, and never put it off but when they ſleep. Their ſhirts are without collar or wriſtband, and over them they throw a long veſt, which they tie with a ſaſh, and over the veſt they wear a looſe gown ſomewhat ſhorter. Their breeches, or drawers, are of a piece with their ſtockings; and inſtead of ſhoes they wear ſlippers, which they put off

when they enter a temple or houſe. They ſuffer no Chriſtians, or other people, to wear white turbans. The dreſs of the women differs little from that of the men, only they wear ſtiffened caps upon their heads with horns ſomething like a mitre, and wear their hair down. When they appear abroad they are ſo muffled up as not to be known by their neareſt relations. Such of the women as are virtuous make no uſe of paint to heighten their beauty, or to diſguiſe their complexion, but they often tinge their hands and feet with henna, which gives them a deep yellow. The men make uſe of the ſame expedient to colour their beards.

MARRIAGES.] Marriages in this country are chiefly negociated by the ladies. When the terms are agreed upon, the bridegroom pays down a ſum of money, a licence is taken out from the cade, or proper magiſtrate, and the parties are married. The bargain is celebrated, as in other nations, with mirth and jollity, and the money is generally employed in furniſhing the houſe of the young couple. A man may marry as many women as he can maintain, but under the reſtriction of a cenſorial power, to prevent too great a plurality of wives. Beſides their wives, the wealthy Turks keep a kind of Seraglio of women; but all theſe indulgencies are ſometimes inſufficient to gratify their unnatural deſires.

FUNERALS.] The burials of the Turks are decent. The corpſe is attended by the relations, chanting paſſages from the Koran; and after being depoſited in a moſque (for ſo they call their temples) they are buried in a field, by the iman or prieſt, who pronounces a funeral ſermon at the time of the interment. The male relations expreſs their ſorrow by alms and prayers; the women, by decking the tomb on certain days with flowers and green leaves; and in mourning for a huſband, they wear a particular head-dreſs, and leave off all finery for twelve months.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion is that of the Mahometan, ſo called from Mahomet, the author of it; ſome account of which the reader will find in the following hiſtory of Arabia, the native country of that impoſtor. The Turks profeſs that of the ſect of Omar; but theſe are ſplit into as many ſectaries as their neighbours the Chriſtians. There is no ordination among their clergy, any perſon may be a prieſt that pleaſes to take the habit and perform the functions of his order, and may lay down his office when he pleaſes. Their chief prieſt or mufti ſeems to have great power in the ſtate.

ECCLESIASTICAL INSTITUTIONS OF CHRISTIANS. } The Turkiſh government having formed theſe into part of its finances, they are tolerated where they

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are moſt profitable; but the hardſhips impoſed upon the Greek church are ſuch, as muſt always diſpoſe that people to favour any revolution of government. Jeruſalem, Alexandria, and Antioch, are patriarchates; and their heads are indulged, according as they pay for their privilege, with a civil as well as an eccleſiaſtical authority over their votaries. The ſame may be ſaid of the Neſtorian and Armenian patriarchs; and every great city that can pay for the privilege has its archbiſhop or biſhop.

LANGUAGE.] The radical languages of this empire are the Sclavonian, which ſeems to have been the mother tongue of the antient Turks; the Greek modernized, but ſtill bearing a relation to the old language; the Arabic, and the Syriac, a dialect of which is ſtill ſpoken. A ſpecimen of the modern Greek follows in their Paternoſter:

Pater hemas, opios iſo ees tos ouranous: hagia ſthito to onoma ſou: na erti he baſilia ſou: to thelema ſou na genetez itzon en te ge, os is ton ouranon: to ptſomi hemas doze hemas ſemoren: kæ ſi choraſe hemos ta crimata hemon itzone, kæ hemas ſichoraſomen ekinous opou: mas adikounkæ men ternes hemais is to piraſmo, alla ſoſon hemas apo to kaxo. Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] I know of none among the Turks, who profeſs a ſovereign contempt for our learning. Greece, which was the native country of genius, arts, and ſciences, produces at preſent, beſides Turks, numerous bands of Chriſtian biſhops, prieſts, and monks, who in general are as ignorant as the Turks themſelves, and are divided into various abſurd ſects of what they call Chriſtianity.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } Theſe are ſo various, that they have furniſhed matter for many voluminous publications, and others are appearing every day. Thoſe countries contained all that was rich and magnificent in architecture, and ſculpture, and neither the barbarity of the Turks, nor the depredations they have ſuffered from the Europeans, ſeem to have diminiſhed their number. They are more or leſs perfect, according to the air, ſoil, or climate, in which they ſtand, and all of them bear deplorable marks of neglect. Many of the fineſt temples are converted into Turkiſh moſques, or Greek churches, and are more diſfigured than thoſe which remain in ruins. Amidſt ſuch a plenitude of curioſities, all that can be done here is to ſelect ſome of the moſt ſtriking; and I ſhall begin with Balbec and Palmyra, which form the pride of all antiquity.

Balbec is ſituated on a riſing plain, between Tripoli in Syria and Damaſcus, and is the Heliopolis of Cælo Syria. Its

remains of antiquity display, according to the best judges, the boldest plan that ever was attempted in architecture. The portico of the temple of Heliopolis is inexpressibly superb, though disfigured by two Turkish towers. The hexagonal court behind it, is now known only by the magnificence of its ruins. Their walls were adorned with Corinthian pilasters and statues, and it opens into a quadrangular court of the same taste and grandeur. The great temple to which this leads, is now so ruined, that it is known only by an entablature, supported by nine lofty columns, each consisting of three pieces joined together, by iron pins, without cement. Some of those pins are a foot long, and a foot in diameter, and the sordid Turks are daily at work to destroy the columns, for the sake of the iron. A small temple is still standing, with a pedestal of eight columns in front, and fifteen in flank, and every where richly ornamented with figures in alto relief, expressing the heads of gods, heroes, and emperors, and part of the antient mythology. To the west of this temple is another, of a circular form, of the Corinthian and Ionic order, but disfigured with Turkish mosques and houses. The other parts of this antient city are proportionably beautiful and stupendous.

Various have been the conjectures concerning the founders of those immense buildings. The inhabitants of Asia ascribe them to Solomon, but some make them so modern, as the time of Antoninus Pius. Perhaps they are of different æras, and though that prince, and his successors, may have rebuilt some part of them, yet the boldness of their architecture, the beauty of their ornaments, and the stupendous execution of the whole, seem to fix their foundation to a period before the Christian æra, but without mounting to the times of the Jews, or the Phenicians, who probably knew little of the Greek stile, in building and ornamenting. Balbec is at present a little city, encompassed with a wall. The inhabitants, who are about 5000 in number, live in or near the circular temple, in houses built out of the antient ruins. A free-stone quarry, in the neighbourhood, furnished the stones for the body of the temple, and one of the stones, not quite detached from the bottom of the quarry, is 70 feet long, 14 broad, and 14 feet five inches deep, and reduced to our measure is 1135 tons. A coarse white marble quarry, at a greater distance, furnished the ornamental parts.

Palmyra, or as it was called by the antients, Tadmor in the Desart, is situated in the wilds of Arabia Petræa, about 33 deg. N. lat. and 200 miles to the south-east of Aleppo. It is approached through a narrow plain lined as it were with

the remains of antiquity, and opening all at once, the eye is preſented with the moſt ſtriking objects that are to be found in the world. The temple of the Sun lies in ruins, but the acceſs to it is through a vaſt number of beautiful Corinthian columns of white marble, the grandeur and beauty of which can only be known by the plates of it, which have been drawn, and publiſhed by Mr. Wood, who, with his friends, paid it a viſit ſome years ago, purpoſely to preſerve ſome remembrance of ſuch a curioſity. As thoſe drawings or copies from them are now common, we muſt refer the reader to them, eſpecially as he can form no very adequate ideas of the ruins, from the printed relation. Superb arches, amazing columns, a colonade extending 4000 feet in length, terminated by a noble mauſoleum, temples, fine porticos, periſtyles, intercolumniations, and entablatures, all of them in the higheſt ſtile, and finiſhed with the moſt beautiful materials, appear on all hands, but ſo diſperſed and disjointed, that it is impoſſible from them to form an idea of the whole when perfect. Thoſe ſtriking ruins are contraſted by the miſerable huts of the wild Arabs, who reſide in or near them.

Nothing but ocular proof could convince any man, that ſo ſuperb a city, formerly 10 miles in circumference, could exiſt in the midſt of tracts of barren uninhabitable ſands. Nothing however is more certain, than that Palmyra was formerly the capital of a great kingdom; that it was the pride as well as the emporium of the eaſtern world, and that its merchants dealt with the Romans, and the weſtern nations, for the merchandizes and luxuries of India and Arabia. Its preſent altered ſituation, therefore, can be accounted for only by natural cauſes, which have turned the moſt fertile tracts into barren deſarts. The Aſiatics think that Palmyra, as well as Balbec, owes its original to Solomon, and in this they receive ſome countenance from ſacred hiſtory. In profane hiſtory it is not mentioned before the time of Marc Anthony, and its moſt ſuperb buildings, are thought to be of the lower empire, about the time of Gallienus.

Odenathus, the laſt king of Palmyra, was highly careſſed by that emperor, and even declared Auguſtus. His widow Zenobia reigned in great glory for ſome time, and Longinus, the celebrated critic, was her ſecretary. Not being able to brook the Roman tyranny, ſhe declared war againſt the emperor Aurelian, who took her priſoner, led her in triumph to Rome, and butchered her principal nobility, and among others, the excellent Longinus. He afterwards deſtroyed her city, and maſſacred its inhabitants, but expended large ſums out of Zenobia's treaſures in repairing the temple of the Sun,

the majeſtic ruins of which have been mentioned. This, it muſt be acknowledged, is but a very lame account of that celebrated city; nor do any of the Palmyrene inſcriptions reach above the Chriſtian æra, though there can be no doubt that the city itſelf is of much higher antiquity. The emperor Juſtinian made ſome efforts to reſtore it to its antient ſplendor, but without effect, for it dwindled by degrees to its preſent wretched ſtate. It has been obſerved very juſtly, that its architecture, and the proportions of its columns, are by no means equal in purity to thoſe of Balbec.

Nothing can be more futile, than the boaſted antiquities ſhewn by the Greek and Armenian prieſts in and near Jeruſalem, which is well known to have been ſo often razed to the ground, and rebuilt anew, that no ſcene of our Saviour's life and ſufferings, can be aſcertained, and yet thoſe eccleſiaſtics ſubſiſt by their forgeries, and pretending to guide travellers to every ſpot mentioned in the Old and New Teſtament. They are, it is true, under ſevere contributions to the Turks, but the trade ſtill goes on though much diminiſhed in its profits. The church of the Holy Sepulchre, as it is called, ſaid to be built by Helena, mother to Conſtantine the Great, is ſtill ſtanding, and of tolerable good architecture, but its different diviſions, and the diſpoſitions made round it, are chiefly calculated to ſupport the forgeries of its keepers. Other churches, built by the ſame lady, are found in Paleſtine; but the country is ſo altered in its appearance and qualities, that it is one of the moſt deſpicable of any in Aſia, and it is in vain for a modern traveller to attempt to trace in it any veſtiges of the kingdom of David and Solomon.

Mecca and Medina are curioſities only through the ſuperſtition of the Mahometans. Their buildings are mean, when compared to European houſes or churches; and even the temple of Mecca, in point of architecture, makes but a ſorry appearance, though erected on the ſpot where the great prophet is ſaid to have been born. The ſame may be ſaid of the moſque at Medina, where that impoſtor was buried; ſo that the vaſt ſums ſpent yearly by Mahometan pilgrims, in viſiting thoſe places, are undoubtedly converted to temporal uſes. I ſhall not amuſe the reader with any accounts of the ſpot which is ſaid to have formed Paradiſe, and to have been ſituated between the rivers Euphrates and Tigris, where there are ſome trees which undoubtedly deſerve that name. The different ruins, ſome of them inexpreſſibly magnificent, that are to be found in theſe immenſe regions, cannot be appropriated with any certainty to their original founders; ſo great is the ignorance in which they have been buried for theſe thouſand years paſt. It is impoſſible to pronounce whether the ſtile of their buildings are

are Greek, Roman, or Saracen, but all other information muſt come from their inſcriptions.

The neighbourhood of Smyrna (now called Iſmir) contains many valuable antiquities, but it cannot be imagined that a learned man could devote his whole life to explain them. The ſame may be ſaid of Aleppo, and a number of other places celebrated in antiquity, and now known only by geographical obſervations. The ſeat of old Troy cannot be diſtinguiſhed by the ſmalleſt veſtige, and is known only by its lying oppoſite to the iſle of Tenedos, and the name of a brook, which the poets magnified into a wonderful river. A temple of marble built in honour of Auguſtus Cæſar, at Milaſſo in Caria, and a few ſtructures of the ſame kind, in the neighbourhood, are among the antiquities that are ſtill entire. Three theatres of white marble, and a noble circus near Laodicea, have ſuffered very little from time or barbariſm, and ſome travellers think that they diſcern the ruins of the celebrated temple of Diana, near Epheſus.

PROVINCES, CHIEF CITIES, MOSQUES, AND OTHER BUILDINGS. } Theſe are very numerous, and at the ſame time very inſignificant, becauſe they have little or no trade, and are greatly decayed from their antient grandeur. Scanderoon ſtands upon the ſite of Old Alexandria, but it is now almoſt depopulated. Superb remains of antiquity are found in its neighbourhood. Aleppo, however, preſerves a reſpectable rank among the cities of the Aſiatic Turkey. It is ſtill the capital of Syria, and is ſuperior in its buildings and conveniencies to moſt of the Turkiſh cities. Its houſes, as uſual in the Eaſt, conſiſt of a large court, with a dead wall to the ſtreet, an arcade or piazza running round it, paved with marble, and an elegant fountain of the ſame in the middle. Aleppo, and its ſuburbs, are ſeven miles in compaſs, and contain 235,000 inhabitants, of whom 30,000 are Chriſtians, and 5000 are Jews. It is furniſhed with moſt of the conveniencies of life, excepting good water, within the walls, and even that is ſupplied by an aqueduct, ſaid to have been erected by the empreſs Helena. Their gardens are pleaſant, being laid out in vineyards, olive, fig, and piſtachio trees, but the country round is rough and barren. Foreign merchants are numerous here, and tranſact their buſineſs in caravanſeras, or large ſquare buildings, containing their ware-houſes, lodging-rooms, and compting-houſes. This city abounds in neat, and ſome of them magnificent moſques, public bagnios, which are very refreſhing, and bazars, or market-places, which are formed into long, narrow, covered ſtreets, with little ſhops, as in other parts of the

the Eaſt. Their coffee is excellent, and conſidered by the Turks as a high luxury, and their ſweetmeats and fruits are delicious. European merchants live here in greater ſplendor and ſafety than in any other city of the Turkiſh empire, which is owing to particular capitulations with the Porte. The Engliſh, French, and Dutch, have conſuls, who are much reſpected, and appear abroad, the Engliſh eſpecially, with marks of diſtinction.

The heat of the country makes it convenient for the inhabitants to ſleep in the open air, here and over all Arabia, and many other parts of the Eaſt; for which reaſon their houſes are flat on the top. This practice accounts for the early acquaintance thoſe nations had with aſtronomy, and the motions of the heavenly bodies, and explains ſome parts of the holy ſcripture. As the Turks are very uniform in their way of living, this account of Aleppo may give the reader an idea of the other Turkiſh cities.

Bagdat, built upon the Tygris, is the capital of the ancient Chaldea, and was once the metropolis of the caliſate, under the Saracens, the moſt powerful monarchy in the earth.

Bagdat retains but few marks of its ancient grandeur. It is rudely fortified, but the conveniency of its ſituation renders it one of the ſeats of the Turkiſh government, and has ſtill a conſiderable trade, being annually viſited by the Smyrna, Aleppo, and weſtern caravans.

Antient Aſſyria is now called the Turkiſh Curdiſtan, tho' part of it is ſubject to the Perſians. The capital is Curdiſtan; the ancient Niniveh being now a heap of ruins. Curdiſtan is ſaid to be for the moſt part cut out of a mountain, and is the reſidence of a viceroy, or beglerbeg. Orfa, formerly Edeſſa, is the capital of the fine province of Meſopotamia. It is now a mean place, and chiefly ſupported by a manufacture of Turkey leather.

Georgia, or Gurgiſtan, though ſubject to the Turks, is chiefly peopled by Chriſtians, a brave, warlike race of men, and now at war with the Mahometans. Their capital, Teflis, is a handſome city, and makes a fine appearance, its inhabitants being about 30,000. The Georgians in general are by ſome travellers ſaid to be the handſomeſt people in the world; and ſome think that they early received the practice of inoculation for the ſmall-pox. They make no ſcruple of ſelling and drinking wines in their capital, and other towns; and their valour has procured them many diſtinguiſhing liberties and privileges.

The ancient cities of Damaſcus, Tyre, and Sidon, ſtill retain part of their former trade. Damaſcus is called Sham, and

and the approach to it by the river is inexpreſſibly beautiful. It contains a fine moſque, which was formerly a Chriſtian church. It ſtill is famous for its ſteel works, ſuch as ſword blades, knives, and the like; the excellent temper of which is ſaid to be owing to a quality in the water. The inhabitants ſtill manufacture thoſe beautiful ſilks, called Damaſks from their city, and carry on a conſiderable traffic in raw and worked ſilk; roſe-water, extracted from the famous damaſk roſes, fruits and wine. The neighbourhood of this city is ſtill beautiful, eſpecially to the Turks, who delight in verdure and gardens. Sidon, which likewiſe lies within the antient Phenicia, has ſtill ſome trade, and a tolerable harbour. Tyre, now called Sur, about 20 miles diſtant from Sidon, ſo famous formerly for its rich dye, is now only inhabited by a few miſerable fiſhermen, who live in the ruins of its ancient grandeur.

Natolia, or Aſia Minor, comprehending the antient provinces of Lydia, Pamphylia, Piſidia, Lycoania, Cilicia, Cappadocia, and Pontus, or Amaſia; all of them territories celebrated in the Greek and Roman hiſtory, are now, through the Turkiſh indolence and tyranny, either forſaken, or a theatre of ruins. The ſites of antient cities are ſtill diſcernible, and ſo luxurious is nature in thoſe countries, that in many places ſhe triumphs over her forlorn condition. The ſelfiſh Turks cultivate no more land than maintain themſelves, and their gardens and ſummer-houſes fill up the circuit of their moſt flouriſhing cities. The moſt judicious travellers, upon an attentive ſurvey of thoſe countries, fully vindicate all that has been ſaid by ſacred and profane writers of their beauty, ſtrength, fertility, and population. Even Paleſtine and Judæa, the moſt deſpicable at preſent of all thoſe countries, lies buried within the luxuries of its own ſoil. The Turks ſeem particularly fond of repreſenting it in the moſt dreadful colours, and have formed a thouſand falſehoods concerning it, which being artfully propagated by ſome among ourſelves, have impoſed upon weak Chriſtians *. Whether thoſe

* The late reverend Dr. Shaw, profeſſor of Greek at Oxford, who ſeems to have examined that country with an uncommon degree of accuracy, and was qualified by the ſoundeſt philoſophy, to make the moſt juſt obſervations, ſays, that was the Holy Land as well cultivated as in former times, it would be more fertile than the very beſt parts of Syria and Phœnicia, becauſe the ſoil is generally much richer, and, every thing conſidered, yields larger crops. Therefore the barrenneſs, ſays he, of which ſome authors complain, does not proceed from the natural unfruitfulneſs of the country, but from the want of inhabitants, the indolence which prevails among the few who poſſeſs it, and the perpetual diſcords and depredations of the petty princes who ſhare this fine country.

Indeed

thoſe countries could ever be reſtored to their ancient grandeur, trade, and population, may be a queſtion with ſome; but I apprehend that it would now be impoſſible (let the Turkiſh government be ever ſo beneficent) to divert commerce (without which, all attempts of that kind muſt be feeble) from its European channels. There can, however, be no queſtion, that a government leſs brutal and bigotted than that of the Turks, might make the natives a powerful as well as a happy people within themſelves. The misfortune is, that the Greeks, Armenians, and other ſects of Chriſtians there, partake but too much of the Turkiſh ſtupidity. Tho' they are not ſuffered to wear white turbans, or to ride on horſeback, and are ſubjected to a thouſand indignities and miſeries, and are even, in many places, far more numerous than their oppreſſors, yet ſo abject is their ſpirit, that they make no efforts for their own deliverance, and they are contented under all their mortifications. If they are leſs indolent than their oppreſſors, it is becauſe they muſt otherwiſe ſtarve; and they dare not enjoy even the property they acquire, leſt it ſhould be diſcovered to their tyrants, who would conſider it as their own.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Theſe objects are little attended to in the Turkiſh dominions. The nature of their government deſtroys that happy ſecurity which is the mother of arts, induſtry, and commerce; and ſuch is the debaſement of the human mind when borne down by tyranny and oppreſſion, that all the great advantages of commerce which nature has as it were thrown under the feet of the inhabitants by their ſituation, are here totally neglected. The advantages of Tyre, Sidon, Alexandria, and all thoſe countries which carried on the commerce of the ancient world, are overlooked. They command the navigation of the Red Sea, which opens a communication to the ſouthern ocean, and preſents them with all the riches of the Indies. Whoever looks on a map of Turkey, muſt admire the ſituation of their capital, upon a narrow ſtrait that ſeparates Europe from Aſia, and communicates on the ſouth with the Mediterranean ſea, thereby opening a paſſage to all the European nations as well as the coaſt of Africa. The ſame ſtrait, communicating northwards with the Black Sea, opens a paſſage, by means of the Danube

Indeed the inhabitants can have but little inclination to cultivate the earth. "In Paleſtine, ſays Mr. Wood, we have often ſeen the huſbandman ſowing, "accompanied by an armed friend, to prevent his being robbed of the ſeed." And, after all, whoever ſows is uncertain whether he ſhall ever reap the harveſt.

Danube and other great rivers, into the interior parts of Germany, Poland, and Ruſſia.

In this extenſive empire, where all the commodities neceſſary for the largeſt plan of induſtry and commerce are produced, the Turks content themſelves with manufacturing cottons, carpets, leather, and ſoap. The moſt valuable of their commodities, ſuch as ſilk, a variety of drugs, and dying ſtuffs, they generally export without giving them much additional value from their own labour. The internal commerce of the empire is extremely ſmall, and managed entirely by Jews and Armenians. In their traffic with Europe the Turks are altogether paſſive. The Engliſh, French, Dutch, and other Europeans, reſort hither with their commodities, and bring back thoſe of Turkey in the ſame bottoms. They ſeldom attempt any diſtant voyages, and are poſſeſſed only of a few coaſting veſſels in the Aſiatic Turkey; their chief royal navy lying on the ſide of Europe. The inattention of the Turks to objects of commerce is perhaps the beſt ſecurity to their government. The balance of power eſtabliſhed among the princes of Europe, and their jealouſies of one another, ſecures to the infidels the poſſeſſion of countries, which in the hands of the Ruſſians, or any active ſtate, might endanger the commerce of their neighbours, eſpecially their trade with India.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Turkiſh government is commonly exhibited as a picture of all that is ſhocking and unnatural in arbitrary power. But from the late accounts of Sir James Potter, who reſided at the Porte, in quality of ambaſſador from his Britannic majeſty, it appears that the rigours of that deſpotic government are conſiderably moderated by the power of religion. For though in this empire there is no hereditary ſucceſſion to property, the rights of individuals may be rendered fixed and ſecure, by being annexed to the church, which is done at an inconſiderable expence. Even Jews and Chriſtians may in this manner ſecure the enjoyment of their lands to the lateſt poſterity; and ſo ſacred and inviolable has this law been held, that there is no inſtance of an attempt on the ſide of the prince to treſpaſs or reverſe it. Neither does the obſervance of this inſtitution altogether depend on the ſuperſtition of the ſultan; he knows that any attempt to violate it, would ſhake the foundations of his throne, which is ſolely ſupported by the laws of religion. Were he to treſpaſs theſe laws, he becomes an infidel, and ceaſes to be the lawful ſovereign. The ſame obſervation extends to all the rules laid down in the Koran, which was deſigned by Mahomet, both as a political code, and as a religious

gious ſyſtem. The laws there enacted, having all the force of religious prejudices to ſupport them, are inviolable; and by them the civil rights of the Mahometans are regulated. Even the comments on this book, which explain the law where it is obſcure, or extend and compleat what Mahomet had left imperfect, are conceived to be of equal validity with the firſt inſtitution of the prophet; and no member of the ſociety, however powerful, can tranſgreſs them without cenſure, or violate them without puniſhment.

The Aſiatic Turks, or rather ſubjects of the Turkiſh empire, who hold their poſſeſſions by a kind of military tenure, on condition of their ſerving in the field with a particular number of men, think themſelves, while they perform that agreement, almoſt independent of his majeſty, who ſeldom calls for the head of the eſtate of a ſubject, who is not an immediate ſervant of the court. The moſt unhappy ſubjects of the Turkiſh government, are thoſe who approach the higheſt dignities of ſtate, and whoſe fortunes are conſtantly expoſed to ſudden alterations, and depend on the breath of their maſter. There is a gradation of great officers in Turkey, of whom the vizir, or prime miniſter; the chiaya, ſecond in power to the vizir; the reis effendi, or ſecretary of ſtate, are the moſt conſiderable. Theſe, as well as the mufti, or high prieſt, the baſhaws, or governors of provinces, the civil judges, and many others, are commonly raiſed by their application and aſſiduity, from the meaneſt ſtations in life, and are often the children of Tartar, or Chriſtian ſlaves taken in war. Tutored in the ſchool of adverſity, and arriving at pre-eminence through a thouſand difficulties and dangers, theſe men are generally as diſtinguiſhed for abilities, as deficient in virtue. They poſſeſs all the diſſimulation, intrigue, and corruption, which often accompanies ambition in a humble rank, and they have a farther reaſon for plundering the people, becauſe they are uncertain how long they may poſſeſs the dignities to which they are arrived. The adminiſtration of juſtice, therefore, is extremely corrupt over the whole empire; but this proceeds from the manners of the judges, and not from the laws of the kingdom, which are founded on very equitable principles.

REVENUES.] The riches drawn from the various provinces of this empire muſt be immenſe. The revenues ariſe from the cuſtoms, and a variety of taxes which fall chiefly on the Chriſtians, and other ſubjects, not of the Mahometan religion. Another branch of the revenue ariſes from the annual tribute paid by the Tartars, and other nations bordering upon Turkey, but governed by their own princes and laws.

All

All theſe, however, are trifling, when compared with the vaſt ſums extorted from the governors of provinces, and officers of ſtate, under the name of preſents. Theſe harpies, to indemnify themſelves, as we have already obſerved, exerciſe every ſpecies of oppreſſion that their avarice can ſuggeſt, till becoming wealthy from the vitals of the countries they are ſent to govern, their riches frequently give riſe to a pretended ſuſpicion of diſloyalty or miſconduct, and the whole fortune of the offender devolves to the crown. The devoted victim is ſeldom acquainted with the nature of the offence, or the names of his accuſers; but, without giving him the leaſt opportunity of making a defence, an officer is diſpatched, with an imperial decree, to take off his head. The unhappy baſſa receives it with the higheſt reſpect, putting it on his head, and after he has read it, ſays, *the will of God and the emperor be done*, or ſome ſuch expreſſion, teſtifying his entire reſignation to the will of his prince. Then he takes the ſilken cord, which the officer has ready in his boſom, and having tied it about his own neck, and ſaid a ſhort prayer, the officer's ſervants throw him on the floor, and, drawing the cord ſtrait, ſoon diſpatch him; after which his head is cut off, and carried to court.

FORCES.] The militia of the Turkiſh empire is of two ſorts; the firſt have certain lands appointed for their maintenance, and the other is paid out of the treaſury. Thoſe that have certain lands, amount to about 268,000 troopers, effective men. Beſides theſe, there are alſo certain auxiliary forces raiſed by the tributary countries of this empire; as the Tartars, Walachians, Moldavians, and Georgians, who are commanded by their reſpective princes. The Kan of the Crim Tartars is obliged to furniſh 100,000 men, and to ſerve in perſon, when the grand ſignior takes the field. In every war, beſides the above forces, there are great numbers of volunteers, who live at their own charge, in expectation of ſucceeding the officers. Theſe adventurers do not only promiſe themſelves an eſtate if they ſurvive, but are taught, that if they die in a war againſt the Chriſtians, they ſhall go immediately to paradiſe. The forces, which receive their pay, from the treaſury, are called the Spahis, or horſe-guards, and are in number about 12,000; and the janizaries, or foot-guards, who are eſteemed the beſt ſoldiers in the Turkiſh armies, and on them they principally depend in an engagement. Theſe amount to about 25,000 men, who are quartered in and near Conſtantinople. They frequently grow mutinous, and have proceeded ſo far ſometimes as to depoſe the ſultan. They are educated in the ſeraglio, and trained up

up to the exercise of arms from their infancy; and there are not less than 100,000 foot soldiers, scattered over every province of the empire, who procure themselves to be registered in this body, to enjoy the privileges of janizaries, which are very great, being subject to no jurisdiction, but that of their aga, or chief commander.

ARMS AND TITLES.] The emperor's titles are swelled with all the pomp of eastern magnificence. He is stiled by his subjects, *the Shadow of God, a God on Earth, Brother to the Sun and Moon, disposer of all earthly Crowns, &c.* The grand signior's arms are, vert, a crescent argent, crested with a turbant, charged with three black plumes of heron's quills, with this motto, *Donec totum impleat orbem.*

COURT AND SERAGLIO.] Great care is taken in the education of the youths, who are designed for the state, the army, or the navy; but they are seldom preferred till they are about 40 years of age, and they rise by their merit. They are generally the children of Christian parents, either taken in war, purchased, or presents from the viceroys and governors of distant provinces, the most beautiful, well made, and sprightly children, that can be met with, and are always reviewed and approved of by the signior, before they are sent to the colleges, or seminaries, where they are educated for employments, according to their genius or abilities.

The ladies of the seraglio, are a collection of beautiful young women, chiefly sent as presents from the provinces, and the Greek islands, most of them the children of Christian parents. On their admission they are committed to the care of old ladies, taught music, dancing, and other accomplishments, and furnished with the richest clothes and ornaments. These ladies are scarce ever suffered to go abroad, except when the grand signior removes from one place to another, when a troop of black eunuchs conveys them to the boats, which are inclosed with lattices; and, when they go by land, they are put into close chariots, and signals are made at certain distances, to give notice that none approach the roads, through which they march. Among the emperor's attendants are a number of mutes, who act and converse by signs with great quickness, and some dwarfs who are exhibited for the diversion of his majesty.

ORIGIN AND PROGRESS OF THE TURKS.] It has been the fate of the more southern and fertile parts of Asia, at different periods, to be conquered by that warlike and hardy race of men, who inhabit the vast country, known to the antients by the name of Scythia, and among the moderns by that of Tartary. One tribe of these people, called Turks or Turcomans,

mans, which name ſignifies Wanderers, extended its conqueſts under various leaders, and during ſeveral centuries, from the ſhore of the Caſpian, to the ſtraits of the Dardanelles. Being long reſident, in the capacity of body guards, about the courts of the Saracens, they embraced the doctrine of Mahomet, and acted for a long time, as mercenaries in the armies of contending princes. Their chief reſidence was in the neighbourhood of mount Caucaſus, from whence they removed to Armenia Major, and after being employed as mercenaries by the ſultans of Perſia, they ſeized that kingdom, and ſpread their ravages over all the neighbouring countries. Bound by their religion to make converts to Mahometaniſm, they never were without a pretence for invading and ravaging the dominions of the Greek emperors, and were ſometimes commanded by very able generals. Upon the declenſion of the califate or empire of the Saracens, they made themſelves maſters of Paleſtine; and the viſiting the Holy City of Jeruſalem, being then part of the Chriſtian exerciſes, in which they had been tolerated by the Saracens, the Turks laid the European pilgrims under ſuch heavy contributions, and exerciſed ſuch horrible cruelties upon the Chriſtian inhabitants of the country, as gave riſe to the famous Cruſades, which we have mentioned more fully in the Introduction.

It unfortunately happened, that the Greek emperors were generally more jealous of the progreſs of the Chriſtians than the Turks; and though after oceans of blood were ſpilt, a Chriſtian kingdom was erected at Jeruſalem under Godfrey of Bouillon, neither he nor his ſucceſſors were poſſeſſed of any real power for maintaining it. The Turks, about the year 1347, had extended their dominions on every ſide, and poſſeſſed themſelves under Othman, of ſome of the fineſt provinces in Aſia, of Nice, and Pruſa in Bithynia, which Othman made his capital, and, as it were, firſt embodied them into a nation; hence they took the name of Othmans from that leader, the appellation of Turks, as it ſignifies in the original, wanderers, or baniſhed men, being conſidered by them as a term of reproach. Othman was ſucceeded by a race of the moſt warlike princes that are mentioned in hiſtory. About the year 1357, they paſſed the Helleſpont, and got a footing in Europe, and Amurath ſettled the ſeat of his empire at Adrianople. Such were their conqueſts, that Bajazet I, after defeating the Greek emperor Sigiſmund, laid ſiege to Conſtantinople, in hopes of ſubjecting all the Greek empire. His greatneſs and inſolence provoked Tarmerlane, who was juſt then returned from his eaſtern conqueſts, to declare war againſt him. A deciſive battle was fought between thoſe

rival conquerors, in the plain where Pompey defeated Mithridates, in which Bajazet's army was cut in pieces, and he himself taken prisoner. The successors of Tamerlane, by declaring war against one another, left the Turks more powerful than ever; and though their career was checked by the valour of the Venetians and Hungarians, they gradually reduced the dominions of the Greek emperors; and, after a long siege, Mahomet II. took Constantinople in 1453. Thus, after an existence of ten centuries, from its first commencement under Constantine the Great, ended the Greek empire; an event which had been long foreseen, and was owing to many causes; the chief was the total degeneracy of the Greek emperors themselves, their courts and families; the dislike their subjects had to the popes, and the western church, one of their patriarchs declaring publickly to a Romish legate, "that he would rather see a turban, than the pope's tiara, "upon the great altar of Constantinople." But as the Turks, when they extended their conquests, did not exterminate, but reduced the nations to subjection, the remains of the antient Greeks still exist, as we have already observed, particularly in Constantinople, and the neighbouring islands, where, though under grievous oppressions, they profess Christianity under their own patriarchs. It is said that the modern Greeks, though pining under the tyrannical yoke of the Turkish government, still preserve somewhat of the exterior appearance, though nothing of the internal principles which distinguished their ancestors.

The conquest of Constantinople was followed by the submission of all Greece; and from this time the Turks have been looked upon as an European power.

Mahomet died in 1481, and was succeeded by Bajazet II. who carried on war against the Hungarians and Venetians, as well as the Persians and Egyptians. Bajazet falling ill of the gout, became indolent, was harrassed by family differences, and at last, by order of his second son, Selim, he was poisoned by a Jew physician.

Selim afterwards ordered his elder brother, Achmet, to be strangled, with many other princes of the Othman race. He defeated the Persians and the prince of Mount Taurus; but being unable to penetrate into Persia, he turned his arms against Egypt, which, after many bloody battles, he annexed to his own dominions, as he did Aleppo, Antioch, Tripoli, Damascus, Gaza, and many other towns.

He was succeeded, in 1520, by his son, Soliman the magnificent; who taking advantage of the differences which prevailed among the Christian powers, took Rhodes, and drove

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the knights from that iſland to Malta, which was given them by the emperor Charles V. The reign of Soliman, after this, was a continual war with the Chriſtian powers, and generally ſucceſsful, both by ſea and land; but he miſcarried in an attempt he made to take the iſle of Malta. This Soliman is looked upon as the greateſt prince that ever filled the throne of Othman.

He was ſucceeded, in 1566, by his ſon, Selim II. In his reign, the Turkiſh marine received an irrecoverable blow from the Chriſtians, in the battle of Lepanto. This defeat might have proved fatal to the Turkiſh power, had the blow been purſued by the Chriſtians, eſpecially the Spaniards. Selim, however, took Cyprus from the Venetians, and Tunis, in Africa, from the Moors. He was ſucceeded, in 1575, by his ſon, Amurath III. who forced the Perſians to cede Tauris, Teflis, and many other cities, to the Turks. He likewiſe took the important fortreſs of Raab, in Hungary; and in 1593, he was ſucceeded by Mahomet III. The memory of this prince is diſtinguiſhed, by his ordering nineteen of his brothers to be ſtrangled, and ten of his father's concubines, who were ſuppoſed to be pregnant, to be thrown into the ſea. He was often unſucceſsful in his wars with the Chriſtians; and died of the plague in 1604. Though his ſucceſſor, Achmet, was beaten by the Perſians, yet he forced the Auſtrians to a treaty in 1606, and to conſent that he ſhould keep what he was poſſeſſed of in Hungary. Oſman, a prince of great ſpirit, but no more than ſixteen years of age, being unſucceſsful againſt the Poles, he was put to death by the janiſaries, whoſe power he intended to have reduced. Morad IV. ſucceeded in 1623, and took Bagdat from the Perſians. His brother, Ibrahim, ſucceeded him in 1640; a worthleſs, inactive prince, and ſtrangled by the janiſaries in 1648. His ſucceſſor, Mahomet IV. was excellently well ſerved by his grand vizir, Cuperli. He took Candy from the Venetians, after it had been beſieged for thirty years. This conqueſt coſt the Venetians, and their allies, 80,000 men, and the Turks, it is ſaid, 180,000. A bloody war ſucceeded between the imperialiſts and the Turks, in which the latter were ſo ſucceſsful, that they laid ſiege to Vienna, but were forced (as has been already mentioned) to raiſe it with great loſs, by John Sobieſki, king of Poland, and other Chriſtian generals. Mahomet was, in 1687, ſhut up in priſon by his ſubjects, and ſucceeded by his brother, Soliman II.

The Turks continued unſucceſsful in their wars during this reign, and that of his brother and ſucceſſor, Achmet II. but Muſtapha II. who mounted the throne in 1694, headed his

armies in perſon, and after ſome briſk campaigns, he was defeated by prince Eugene; and the peace of Carlowitz, between the imperialiſts and Turks, was concluded in 1699. Soon after, Muſtapha was depoſed, his mufti was beheaded, and his brother, Achmet III. mounted the throne. He was the prince who gave ſhelter, at Bender, to Charles XII. of Sweden; and ended a war with the Ruſſians by a glorious peace concluded at Pruth. He had afterwards a war with the Venetians, which alarmed all the Chriſtian powers. The ſcene of action was tranſlated to Hungary, where the imperial general, prince Eugene, gave ſo many repeated defeats to the infidels, that they were forced to conclude a diſgraceful peace, at Paſſarowitz, in 1718. An unfortunate war with the Perſians, under Kouli Khan, ſucceeding, the populace demanded the heads of the vizir, the chief admiral, and the ſecretary, which were accordingly ſtruck off; but Achmet was depoſed, and Mahomet V. advanced to the throne. He was unſucceſsful in his wars with Kouli Khan, and at laſt obliged to recognize that uſurper as ſophi of Perſia. He was, after that, engaged in a war with the imperialiſts and Ruſſians; againſt the former he was victorious, but the ſucceſſes of the latter, which threatened Conſtantinople itſelf, forced him to agree to a haſty treaty with the emperor, and after that to another with the Ruſſians, which was greatly to his diſadvantage. Mahomet died in 1754. He was ſucceeded by his brother, Oſman III. who died in 1757, and was ſucceeded by his brother, Muſtapha III. born in 1723, who is now reigning, and engaged in (1771) a hitherto unſucceſsful war with the Ruſſians.

The perſeverance of the Turks, ſupplied by their numerous Aſiatic armies, and their implicit ſubmiſſion to their officers, rather than any excellency in military diſcipline or courage in war, have been the great ſprings of thoſe ſucceſſes which render their empire at preſent ſo formidable. The extenſion, as well as duration of their empire, may indeed be in ſome meaſure owing to the military inſtitution of the janiſaries, a corps originally compoſed of the children of ſuch Chriſtian parents as could not pay their taxes. Theſe being collected together, were formed to the exerciſe of arms under the eyes of their officers in the Seraglio. They were generally in number about 40,000; and ſo excellent was their diſcipline, that they were deemed to be invincible: and they ſtill conſtitute the flower of the Turkiſh armies. After all, we muſt conſider the political ſtate of Europe, and the jealouſies that ſubſiſt among its princes, as the ſureſt baſis of this empire, and the principal reaſon why the fineſt provinces in the world are ſuffered to remain in the poſſeſſion of theſe haughty infidels.

TARTARY in ASIA.

Situation and extent.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 4000	between	50 and 150 east longitude.
Breadth 2400		30 and 72 north latitude.

Boundaries.] IT would be deceiving the reader to desire him to depend upon any accounts given us by geographers, of the extent, limits, and situation of those vast regions. Even the empress of Russia and her ministry are ignorant of her precise limits with the Chinese, the Persians, and other nations. Tartary, taken in its fullest extent, is bounded by the Frozen Ocean, on the north; by the Pacific Ocean, on the east; by China, India, Persia, and the Caspian Sea, on the south; and by Muscovy, on the west.

Grand divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
North-east division	Kamtschatka Tartars	Kamtschatka
	Jakutskoi Tartars	Jakutskoi
South-east division	Bratski — —	Bratski
	Thibet and Mongul Tartars ———	Poion
		Kudak
North-west division	Samoieda — —	Mangasia
	Ostiack — —	Kortskoi
South-west division	Circassian and Astracan Tartary — —	Terki
		Astracan
Middle division	Siberia — —	Tobolski
	Kalmuc and Usbec Tartary — —	Bokharia
		Samarcand.

Mountains.] The principal mountains are those of Caucasus, in Circassia.

Seas.] These are the Frozen Ocean, the Pacific Ocean, and the Caspian Sea.

Rivers.] The rivers are, the Wolga, which runs a course of two thousand miles; the Obey, which divides Asia from Europe; the Tabol, Irtis, Genesa or Jenska; the Lena, and the Argun, which divides the Russian and Chinese empires.

Air, climate, soil, and produce.] The air of this country is very different, by reason of its vast extent from north to south; the northern parts reaching beyond the arctic polar circle, and the southern being in the same latitudes with Spain, France, Italy, and part of Turkey. Nova Zembla and Russian Lapland are most uncomfortable

regions; the earth, which is covered with ſnow nine months in the year, being extremely barren, and every where incumbered with unwholeſome marſhes, uninhabited mountains, and impenetrable thickneſſes. Though Siberia is as it were another name for a country of horror, yet we are told that the air in the ſouthern parts is tolerably mild, the ſoil furniſhed with good water, and cultivated with ſome ſucceſs. The beſt accounts we have of its interior appearance, is from the ingenious French gentlemen who were ſent thither to make aſtronomical obſervations; they all agree in repreſenting it as a diſmal region, and almoſt uninhabited. Aſtracan, and the ſouthern parts of Tartary, are extremely fertile, owing more to nature than induſtry. The parts that are cultivated produce excellent fruits of almoſt all the kinds known in Europe, eſpecially grapes, which are reckoned the largeſt and fineſt in the world. Their ſummers are very dry; and from the end of July to the beginning of October, the air is peſtered and the ſoil ſometimes ruined by incredible quantities of locuſts. Mr. Bell, who travelled with the Ruſſian ambaſſador to China, repreſents ſome parts of Tartary as deſirable and fertile countries, the graſs growing ſpontaneouſly to an amazing height.

METALS AND MINERALS.] It is ſaid that Siberia contains mines of gold, ſilver, copper, iron, jaſper, lapis lazuli, and loadſtones; a ſort of large teeth found here, creates ſome diſpute among the naturaliſts, whether they belong to elephants, or are a marine production; their appearance is certainly whimſical and curious when poliſhed with art and ſkill.

ANIMALS.] Theſe are camels, dromedaries, bears, wolves, and all the other land and amphibious animals that are common in the north parts of Europe. Their horſes are of a good ſize for the ſaddle, and very hardy; as they run wild till they are five or ſix years old, they are generally headſtrong. Near Aſtracan there is a bird called by the Ruſſians baba, of a grey colour, and ſomething larger than a ſwan; he has a broad bill, under which hangs a bag that may contain a quart or more; he wades near the edge of the river, and on ſeeing a ſhoal of fry or ſmall fiſhes, ſpreads his wings and drives them to a ſhallow, where he gobbles as many of them as he can into his bag, and then going aſhore, eats them or carries them to the young. Some travellers take this bird to be the pelican.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS.] We can form no probable gueſs as to the number of inhabitants in Tartary, but from many circumſtances we may conclude that they are not proportioned

portioned to the extent of their country. They are in general ſtrong made, ſtout men; their faces broad, their noſes flattiſh, their eyes ſmall and black, but very quick; their beards are ſcarcely viſible, as they continually thin them by pulling up the hairs by the roots. The beauty of the Circaſſian women is a kind of ſtaple commodity in that country; for parents there make no ſcruple of ſelling their daughters to recruit the ſeraglios of the great men of Turkey and Perſia. They are purchaſed, when young, by merchants, and taught ſuch accompliſhments as ſuit their capacities, to render them more valuable againſt the day of ſale. The Tartars are in general a wandering ſort of people; in their perigrinations they ſet out in the ſpring, their number in one body being frequently 10,000, preceded by their flocks and herds. When they come to an inviting ſpot, they live upon it till all its graſs and verdure is eaten up. They have little money, except what they get from their neighbours the Ruſſians, Perſians, or Turks, in exchange for cattle; with this they purchaſe cloth, ſilks, ſtuffs, and other apparel for their women. They have few mechanics, except thoſe who make arms. They avoid all labour as the greateſt ſlavery, their only employment is tending their flocks, hunting, and managing their horſes. If they are angry with a perſon, they wiſh he may live in one fixed place, and work like a Ruſſian. Among themſelves they are very hoſpitable, and wonderfully ſo to the ſtrangers and travellers who confidentially put themſelves under their protection. They are naturally of an eaſy chearful temper, always diſpoſed to laughter, and ſeldom depreſſed by care or melancholy. There is a ſtrong reſemblance between the northern Tartars and ſome nations of Canada in North America, particularly when any of their people are infirm through great age, or ſeized with diſtempers reckoned incurable, they make a ſmall hut for the patient near ſome river, in which they leave him with ſome proviſions, and ſeldom or never return to viſit him. On ſuch occaſions they ſay they do their parents a good office, in ſending them to a better world. Notwithſtanding this behaviour, many nations of the Tartars, eſpecially towards the ſouth, are tractable, humane, and are ſuſceptible of pious and virtuous ſentiments. Their affection for their fathers, and their ſubmiſſion to their authority, cannot be exceeded; and this noble quality of filial love has diſtinguiſhed them in all ages. Hiſtory tells us, that Darius, king of Perſia, having invaded them with all the forces of his empire, and the Scythians retiring by little and little, Darius ſent an ambaſſador to demand where it was they propoſed to conclude their retreat, and when they intended to

begin fighting. They returned for anſwer, with a ſpirit ſo peculiar to that people, "That they had no cities nor cultivated fields, for the defence of which they ſhould give him battle; but when once he was come to the place of their fathers monuments, he ſhould then underſtand in what manner the Scythians uſed to fight."

The Tartars are inured to horſemanſhip from their infancy; they ſeldom appear on foot. They are dextrous in ſhooting at a mark, inſomuch that a Tartar, while at full gallop, will cleft a pole with an arrow, though at a conſiderable diſtance. The dreſs of the men is very ſimple and fit for action; it generally conſiſts of a ſhort jacket, with narrow ſleeves made of deers ſkin, having the fur outward; trowſers and hoſe of the ſame kind of ſkin, both of one piece, and light to the limbs. The Tartars live in huts half ſunk under ground; they have a fire in the middle, with a hole in the top to let out the ſmoak, and benches round the fire to ſit or lie upon. This ſeems to be the common method of living among all the northern nations, from Lapland eaſtward, to the Japaneſe ocean. In the extreme northern provinces, during the winter, every family burrows itſelf as it were under ground; and we are told, that ſo ſociable are they in their diſpoſitions, that they make ſubterraneous communications with each other, ſo that they may be ſaid to live in an inviſible city. The Tartars are immoderately fond of horſe-fleſh, eſpecially if it be young, and a little tainted, which makes their cabins extremely nauſeous. Though horſe-fleſh be preferred raw by ſome northern tribes, the general way of eating it is after it has been ſmoaked and dried. The Tartars purchaſe their wives with cattle. In their marriages they are not very delicate. Little or no difference is made between the child of a concubine or ſlave, and that of the wife; but among the heads of tribes, the wife's ſon is always preferred to the ſucceſſion. After a wife is turned of forty, ſhe is employed in menial duties as another ſervant, and as ſuch muſt attend the young wives who ſucceed to their places; nor is it uncommon in ſome of the more barbarous tribes for a father to marry his own daughter.

RELIGION.] The religion of the Tartars ſomewhat reſembles their civil government, and is commonly accommodated to that of their neighbours, for it partakes of the Mahometan, the Gentoo, the Greek, and even the popiſh religions. Some of them are the groſſeſt idolators, and worſhip little rude images dreſſed up in rags. Each has his own deity, with whom they make very free when matters do not go according to their own mind. The religion and government of the kingdom of

of Tibet, a large tract of Tartary, bordering upon China, form the moſt extraordinary article that is to be found in the hiſtory of mankind. The Tibettians are governed by a living, eating, and drinking god, whom they believe to be omnipotent, and whom they call the Grand Lama, or Dalay Lama. He reſides in a pagoda or temple, upon the mountain Putali, in a croſs-legged poſture, but without ſpeaking or moving, otherwiſe than by ſometimes lifting his hand in approbation of a favourite worſhipper. Not only the Tibettians, but the neighbouring princes and people flock in incredible numbers, with rich preſents, to pay him their adorations; and he generally appea s to be a healthy, ruddy-faced young man, about twenty-ſeven years of age. This being appoints deputies under him, the chief of whom is called the Tipa, who takes care of all the temporal affairs of the kingdom, and has a number of ſubſtituted lamas. Theſe are properly the king and the governors of Tibet, both civil and military; it being below the dignity of the grand lama to ſuperintend any temporal concerns.

As to the grand lama, he is himſelf the moſt miſerable wretch in the empire. He is purchaſed, when young, from a healthy peaſant, and privately brought up by the lamas to the buſineſs of his function, which is to move by clock-work, and to be carried in ſtate to the place of his impriſonment, where he remains till next day, when the farce of his enthronement is repeated. When he falls ill, or becomes too old to act his part, he is diſpatched by his miniſters, who produce another, as like him as they can find, in his room; and when any alteration is obſerved, they always give ſatisfactory reaſons why the dalay lama has changed his appearance. He is never ſuffered to touch any of the fine fruits or viands that are brought to his ſhrine, all which are devoured by his miniſters, who take care to diet him in his priſon. Such are the general outlines of this pretended theocracy, in which all travellers are agreed, however they may differ among themſelves as to modes and circumſtances.

LEARNING.] The reader may be ſurprized to find this article among a nation of Tartars, yet nothing is more certain than that under Zingis Khan, and Tamerlane, and their early deſcendants, Aſtracan and the neighbouring countries were the ſeats of learning and politeneſs, as well as empire and magnificence. Modern luxury, be it ever ſo ſplendid, falls ſhort of that of thoſe princes; and ſome remains of their taſte in architecture are ſtill extant, but in ſpots ſo deſolate, that they are almoſt inacceſſible. The cultivation of learning was the firſt care of the prince, and generally committed to the

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care of his own relations or principal grandees. They wrote in the Perſian and Arabic tongues; and their hiſtories, many of which are ſtill extant in manuſcript, carry with them the ſtrongeſt marks of authenticity.

CURIOSITIES.] Theſe are comprehended in the remains of the buildings, left by the abovementioned great conquerors, and their ſucceſſors; they are, however, but little known to Europeans, though many of them are ſaid to have been diſcovered by the wandering Tartars in the internal parts of the country. Some gold and ſilver coins of the ſame princes have likewiſe been found, with ſeveral manuſcripts neatly written, which have been carried to Peterſburg. In 1720, ſays Mr. Voltaire, in his Hiſtory of Peter the Great, there was found in Calmuc Tartary, a ſubterraneous houſe of ſtone, ſome urns, lamps, and earrings, an equeſtrian ſtatue, an oriental prince with a diadem on his head, two women ſeated on thrones, and a roll of manuſcripts, which was ſent by Peter the Great to the Academy of Inſcriptions at Paris, and proved to be in the language of Tibet.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] Of theſe we know little but the names, and that they are no better than fixed herds. They may be ſaid to be places of abode rather than towns or cities, for we do not find that they are under any regular government, or that they can make a defence againſt an enemy. The few places, however, that are mentioned in the preceding diviſions of this country, merit notice. Tobolſki and Aſtracan are conſiderable cities, the firſt containing 15,000, and the latter 70,000 inhabitants. Forts, villages, and towns have lately been erected in different parts of Siberia, for civilizing the inhabitants, and rendering them obedient to the Ruſſian government. But I apprehend it will require a conſiderable time before any fixed plan of government can be formed in this country.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] This head makes no figure in the hiſtory of Tartary, their chief traffic conſiſting in cattle, ſkins, beavers, rhubarb, muſk, and fiſh. The Aſtracans, notwithſtanding their interruptions by the wild Tartars, carry on a conſiderable traffic into Perſia, to which they export red leather, woollen and linen cloth, and ſome European manufactures.

HISTORY.] Though it is certain that Tartary, formerly known by the name of Scythia, peopled the northern parts of Europe, and furniſhed thoſe amazing numbers who, under various names, deſtroyed the Roman empire, yet it is now but very thinly inhabited; and thoſe fine provinces, where learning and the arts reſided, are now ſcenes of horror and

and barbarity. This muſt have been owing to the dreadful maſſacres made among the nations by the two abovementioned conquerors and their deſcendants; for nothing is more common in their hiſtories than their putting to the ſword three or four hundred thouſand people in a few days.

The country of Uſbec Tartary was once the ſeat of a more powerful empire than that of Rome or Greece. It was not only the native country, but the favourite reſidence of Zingis Khan and Tamerlane, who enriched it with the ſpoils of India and the eaſtern world. It is ſo difficult to diſcover any remains of magnificence here, that ſome authors have abſurdly queſtioned the veracity of the hiſtorians of theſe great conquerors, though it be better eſtabliſhed than that of the Greek or Roman writers. The ſame may be ſaid of Tamerlane, whoſe memory has been more permanent than that of Zingis Khan, and whoſe deſcent is claimed not only by all the Khans and petty princes of Tartary, but by the emperor of Indoſtan himſelf. The capital of this country is Bokharia, which was known to the antients by the name of Bucharia, and it is ſituated in the latitude of 39 degrees 15 minutes, and 13 miles diſtant from the once famous city of Samarcand, the birth-place of Tamerlane the Great.

The preſent inhabitants of this immenſe common compoſe innumerable tribes, who range at pleaſure with their flocks and their herds, in the old patriarchal manner. Their tribes are commanded by ſeparate Khans or leaders, who, upon particular emergencies, elect a great Khan, who claims a paramount power, over ſtrangers as well as natives, and who can bring into the field from 20 to 100,000 horſemen. Their chief reſidence is a kind of military ſtation, which is moved and ſhifted according to the chance of war and other occaſions. They are bounded on every ſide by the Ruſſian, the Chineſe, the Mogul, the Perſian, or the Turkiſh empires; each of whom are puſhing on their conqueſts in this extenſive, and in ſome places fertile country. The Khans pay a tribute, or acknowledgement of their dependency, upon one or other of their powerful neighbours, who treat them with caution and lenity; as the friendſhip of theſe barbarians is of the utmoſt conſequence to the powers with whom they are allied. Some tribes, however, affect independency, and when united they form a powerful body, and of late have been very formidable to their neighbours, particularly to the Chineſe, as we ſhall mention in our account of that empire.

The method of carrying on war, by waſting the country, is very antient among the Tartars, and practiſed by all of them from the Danube eaſtward. This circumſtance renders

them a dreadful enemy to regular troops, who muſt thereby be deprived of all ſubſiſtence; while the Tartars, having always many ſpare horſes to kill and eat, are at no loſs for proviſions.

The Empire of CHINA.

Situation and extent.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	1450	between	20 and 42 north latitude.
Breadth	1260		98 and 123 eaſt longitude.

Boundaries.] IT is bounded by the Chineſe Tartary, on the north; by the Pacific ocean, which divides it from North America, on the eaſt; by the Chineſian ſea, ſouth; and by Tonquin, and the Tartarian countries of Tibet and Ruſſia, on the weſt.

Diviſions.] The great diviſion of this empire, according to the authors of the Univerſal Hiſtory, is into fifteen provinces (excluſive of that of Lyau-tong, which is ſituate without the great wall, though under the ſame dominion); each of which might, for their largeneſs, fertility, populouſneſs, and opulence, paſs for ſo many diſtinct kingdoms.

But it is neceſſary to inform the reader, that the informations contained in Du Halde's voluminous account of China, are drawn from the papers of Jeſuits, and other religious ſent thither by the pope, but whoſe miſſions have been at an end for above half a century. Some of thoſe fathers were men of penetration and judgment, and had great opportunities of being informed about a century ago; but even their accounts of this empire are juſtly to be ſuſpected. They had powerful enemies at the court of Rome, where they maintained their footing, only by magnifying their own labours and ſucceſſes, as well as the importance of the Chineſe empire.

Name.] It is probably owing to a Chineſe word, ſignifying Middle, from a notion the natives had that their country lay in the middle of the world.

Mountains.] China, excepting to the north, is a plain country, and contains no remarkable mountains.

Rivers and water.] The chief are the Yamour, and the Argun, which are the boundary between the Ruſſian and Chineſe Tartary; the Crocceus, or Whambo, or the Yellow River; the Kiam, or the Blue River, and the Tay. Common water in China, is very indifferent, and is in ſome places boiled to make it fit for uſe.

BAYS.] The chief are thoſe of Nanking and Canton.

CANALS.] Theſe are ſufficient to entitle the antient Chineſe to the character of being the wiſeſt and moſt induſtrious people in the world. The commodiouſneſs and length of their canals are incredible. The chief of them are lined with hewn ſtone on the ſides, and they are ſo deep, that they carry large veſſels, and ſometimes they extend above 1000 miles in length. Thoſe veſſels are fitted up for all the conveniencies of life, and it has been thought by ſome that in China the water contains as many inhabitants as the land. They are furniſhed with ſtone quays, and ſometimes with bridges of an amazing conſtruction. The navigation is ſlow, and the veſſels ſometimes drawn by men. No precautions are wanting, that could be formed by art or perſeverance for the ſafety of the paſſengers in caſe a canal is croſſed by a rapid river, or expoſed to torrents from the mountains. Thoſe canals, and the variety that is ſeen upon their borders, renders China the moſt delightful to the eye of any country in the world, as well as fertile, in places that are not ſo by nature.

FORESTS.] Such is the induſtry of the Chineſe, that they are not encumbered with foreſts or wood, though no country is better fitted for producing timber of all kinds. They ſuffer, however, none to grow but for ornament and uſe, or on the ſides of mountains, from whence the trees, when cut down, can be conveyed to any place by water.

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air of this empire is according to the ſituation of the places. Towards the north it is ſharp, in the middle mild, and in the ſouth hot. The ſoil is either by nature or art fruitful of every thing than can miniſter to the neceſſities, conveniencies, or luxuries of life. The culture of the cotton, and the rice fields, from which the bulk of the inhabitants are cloathed and fed, is ingenious almoſt beyond deſcription. The rare trees, and aromatic productions, either ornamental or medicinal, that abound in other parts of the world, are to be found in China, and ſome are peculiar to itſelf; but even a catalogue of them would form a little volume. Some, however, muſt be mentioned.

The tallow tree has a ſhort trunk, a ſmooth bark, crooked branches, red leaves, ſhaped like a heart, and is about the height of a common cherry-tree. The fruit it produces has all the qualities of our tallow, and when manufactured with oil, ſerve the natives as candles, but they ſmell ſtrong, nor is their light clear. Of the other trees, peculiar to China, are ſome which yield a kind of flour; ſome partake of the nature of pepper. The gum of ſome are poiſonous, but afford the fineſt varniſh in the world. After all that can be ſaid of thoſe,

thoſe, and many other beautiful and uſeful trees, the Chineſe, notwithſtanding their induſtry, are ſo wedded to their antient cuſtoms, that they are very little, if at all, meliorated by cultivation. The ſame may be ſaid of their richeſt fruits, which, in general, are far from being ſo delicious as thoſe of Europe, and indeed of America. This is owing to the Chineſe never practiſing grafting, or inoculation of trees, and knowing nothing of experimental gardening.

It would be unpardonable here not to mention the raw-ſilk, which ſo much abounds in China, and above all, the tea plant or ſhrub. It is planted in rows, and pruned to prevent its luxuriancy. Notwithſtanding our long intercourſe with China, writers are ſtill divided about the different ſpecies and culture of this plant. It is generally thought that the green and bohea grows on the ſame ſhrub, but that the latter admits of ſome kind of preparation, which takes away its raking qualities, and gives it a deeper colour. The other kinds, which go by the names of imperial, congo, ſinglo, and the like, are occaſioned probably by the nature of the ſoils, and from the provinces in which they grow. The culture of this plant ſeems to be very ſimple, and it is certain, that ſome kinds are of a much higher and delicious flavour than others. It is thought that the fineſt, which is called the Flower of the tea, is imported over land to Ruſſia; but we know of little difference in their effects on the human body. The greateſt is between the bohea and the green.

I am apt to think that the Portugueze had the uſe of tea long before the Engliſh, and that it was introduced among the latter, before the reſtoration, as mention of it is made in the firſt act of parliament, that ſettled the exciſe on the king for life in 1660. Catharine of Liſbon, wife to Charles II. rendered the uſe of it common at his court. The ginſeng, ſo famous among the Chineſe, as the univerſal remedy, and monopolized even by their emperors, is now found to be but a common root, and is diſcovered in the Britiſh America. When brought to Europe, it is little diſtinguiſhed for its healing qualities, and this inſtance alone ought to teach us with what caution the former accounts of China are to be read. The ginſeng, however, is a native of the Chineſe Tartary.

METALS AND MINERALS.] China (if we are to believe naturaliſts) produces all metals and minerals that are known in the world. White copper is peculiar to itſelf, but we know of no extraordinary quality it poſſeſſes. One of the fundamental maxims of the Chineſe government is that of not introducing a ſuperabundancy of gold and ſilver, for fear of hurting induſtry.

induſtry. Their gold mines, therefore, are but ſlightly worked, and the currency of that metal is ſupplied by the grains the people pick up in the ſand of rivers and mountains. The ſilver ſpecie is furniſhed from the mines of Honan.

POPULATION AND INHABITANTS.] The number of Chineſe, by the beſt accounts, does not fall ſhort of fifty millions; a number diſproportioned to what we are told of the vaſt population of particular cities and provinces. Moſt of thoſe accounts are exaggerated, and perſons, who viſit China without any view of becoming authors, are greatly diſappointed in their mighty expectations. The Chineſe, in their perſons, are middle-ſized, their faces broad, their eyes black and ſmall, their noſes rather ſhort. The Chineſe have particular ideas of beauty. They pluck up the hairs of the lower part of their faces, by the roots, with tweezers, leaving a few ſtraggling ones by way of beard. Their Tartar princes compel them to cut off the hair of their heads, and like Mahometans, to wear only a lock on the crown. Their complexions towards the north is fair, towards the ſouth ſwarthy, and the fatter a man is, they think him the handſomer. Men of quality, and learning, who are not much expoſed to the ſun, are delicately complexioned, and they who are bred to letters, let the nails of their fingers grow to an enormous length, to ſhew that they are not employed in manual labour.

The women have little eyes, plump, roſy lips, black hair, regular features, and a delicate though florid complexion. The ſmallneſs of their feet is reckoned a principal part of their beauty, and no ſwathing is omitted, when they are young, to give them that accompliſhment, ſo that when they grow up, they may be ſaid to totter rather than to walk. This fanciful piece of beauty was probably invented by the antient Chineſe, to palliate their jealouſy.

To enter into all the ſtarch ridiculous formalities of the Chineſe, eſpecially their men of quality, when paying or receiving viſits, would give my reader little information, and leſs amuſement, and very probably come too late, as the manners of the Chineſe, ſince they fell under the power of the Tartars, are greatly altered, and daily vary. It is ſufficient to obſerve, that the legiſlators of China, looking upon ſubmiſſion and ſubordination as the corner-ſtones of all ſociety, deviſed thoſe outward marks of reſpect, ridiculous as they appear to us, as the teſt of duty and reſpect from inferiors to ſuperiors, and their capital maxim was, that the man who was deficient in civility, was void of good ſenſe.

By

By the lateſt and beſt accounts, the Chineſe in general are the moſt diſhoneſt, low, thieving ſet in the world, and they employ their natural quickneſs only to improve the arts of cheating the nations they deal with, eſpecially the Europeans, whom they cheat with great eaſe, particularly the Engliſh, but they obſerve that none but a Chineſe can cheat a Chineſe. They are fond of law diſputes beyond any people in the world. Their hypocriſy is without bounds, and the men of property among them, practiſe the moſt avowed bribery, and the loweſt meanneſſes to obtain preferment.

DRESS.] This varies according to the degrees of men among them. The men wear caps on their heads of the faſhion of a bell, thoſe of quality are ornamented with jewels. The reſt of their dreſs is eaſy and looſe, conſiſting of a veſt and a faſh, a coat or gown thrown over them, ſilk boots quilted with cotton, and a pair of drawers. The ladies towards the ſouth wear nothing on their head. Sometimes their hair is drawn up in a net, and ſometimes it is diſhevelled. Their dreſs differs but little from that of the men, only their gown or upper garment has very large open ſleeves. The dreſs, both of men and women, varies however according to the temperature of the climate.

MARRIAGES.] The parties never ſee each other in China till the bargain is concluded by the parents, and that is generally when the parties are perfect children. Next to being barren, the greateſt ſcandal is to bring females into the world; and if a woman of a poor family happens to have three or four girls, ſucceſſively, ſhe will expoſe or ſtrangle them, which is the principal reaſon of ſo many children being found in the ſtreets and highways.

FUNERALS.] People of note cauſe their coffins to be made, and their tombs to be built in their life-time. No perſons are buried within the walls of a city, nor is a dead corpſe ſuffered to be brought into a town, if a perſon died in the country. Every Chineſe keeps in his houſe a table, upon which are written the names of his father, grandfather, and great grandfather; before which they frequently burn incenſe, and proſtrate themſelves; and when the father of a family dies, the name of the great grandfather is taken away, and that of the deceaſed is added.

LANGUAGE.] The Chineſe language conſiſts of a very few words, or rather ſyllables, which admit of ſo many variations, and ſo much modified by ſounds and action, that it is generally thought no ſtranger can attain it, ſo as to ſpeak it.

GENIUS AND LEARNING.] The genius of the Chineſe is peculiar to themſelves. They have no conception of what is beautiful in writing, regular in architecture, or natural in painting

painting, and yet in their gardening, and planning their grounds, they hit upon the true ſublime and beautiful. The learning of the Chineſe has been diſplayed in ſeveral ſpecimens publiſhed by Du Halde, as well as of poetry, but they contain no more than a ſet of maxims and precepts, accommodated to public and private life, without any thing argumentative or deſcriptive. They perform all the operations of arithmetic with prodigious quickneſs, but differently from the Europeans. Till the latter came among them, they were ignorant of mathematical learning, and all its depending arts. They had no apparatus for aſtronomical obſervations; and metaphyſical learning, if it exiſted among them, was only known to their philoſophers; but even the arts introduced by the Jeſuits, were of very ſhort duration among them, and laſted very little longer than the reign of Cang-hi, who was contemporary with our Charles II. nor is it very probable they ever will be revived. It has been generally ſaid, that they underſtood printing before the Europeans; but that can be only applied to block printing, for the fuſile and moveable types were undoubtedly Dutch or German inventions. The Chineſe, however, had almanacs, which were ſtamped from plates or blocks, many hundred years before printing was diſcovered in Europe. The invention of gunpowder is juſtly claimed by the Chineſe, who made uſe of it againſt Zingis Khan and Tamerlane. They ſeem to have known nothing of ſmall fire-arms, and to have been acquainted only with the cannon, which they call the fire-pan. Their induſtry in their manufactures of ſtuffs, porcelane, japanning, and the like ſedentary trades is amazing, and can be equalled only by their labours in the field, in making canals, levelling mountains, raiſing gardens, and navigating their junks and boats.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES.] Few natural curioſities preſent themſelves in China, that have not been comprehended under preceding articles. Some volcanos, rivers and lakes of particular qualities, are to be found in different parts of the empire. The volcano of Lineſung is ſaid ſometimes to make ſo furious a diſcharge of fire and aſhes, as to occaſion a tempeſt in the air, and ſome of their lakes are ſaid to petrify fiſhes when put into them. The artificial curioſities of China are ſtupendous. The great wall, ſeparating China from Tartary, to prevent the incurſions of the Tartars, is ſuppoſed to extend 1500 miles. It is carried over mountains and valleys, and reaches from the province of Xenſi to the Kang ſea, between the provinces of Pekin and Lænotum. It is in moſt places built of brick and mortar, which is ſo well tempered, that though it has ſtood for 1800 years, it is but little decayed.

The beginning of this wall is a large bulwark of ſtone raiſed in the ſea, in the province of Petcheli, to the eaſt of Pekin, and almoſt in the ſame latitude; it is built like the walls of the capital city of the empire, but much wider, being terraſſed and caſed with bricks, and is from twenty to twenty-five feet high. P. Regis, and the other gentleman, who took a map of theſe provinces, often ſtretched a line on the top, to meaſure the baſis of triangles, and to take diſtant points with an inſtrument. They always found it paved wide enough for five or ſix horſemen to travel abreaſt with eaſe. Mention has been already made of the prodigious canals and roads, that are cut through this empire.

The artificial mountains preſent on their tops temples, monaſteries, and other edifices, fabricated by hands. Some part, however, of what we are told concerning the cavities in theſe mountains, ſeems to be fabulous. The Chineſe bridges cannot be ſufficiently admired. They are built ſometimes upon barges ſtrongly chained together, yet ſo as to be parted, and to let the veſſels paſs that ſail up and down the river. Some of them run from mountain to mountain, and conſiſt only of one arch; that over the river Saffrany is 400 cubits long, and 500 high, though a ſingle arch, and joins two mountains, and ſome in the interior parts of the empire, are ſaid to be ſtill more ſtupendous. The triumphal arches of this country form the next ſpecies of artificial curioſities. Though they are not built in the Greek or Roman ſtile of architecture, yet they are ſuperb and beautiful, and erected to the memories of their great men, with vaſt labour and expence. They are ſaid in the whole to be eleven hundred, two hundred of which are particularly magnificent. Their ſepulchral monuments, make likewiſe a great figure. Their towers, the models of which are now ſo common in Europe under the name of pagodas, are vaſt embelliſhments to the face of their country. They ſeem to be conſtructed by a regular order, and all of them are finiſhed with exquiſite carvings and gildings, and other ornaments; that at Nanking, which is 200 feet high, and 40 in diameter, is the moſt admired. It is called the Porcelane Tower, becauſe it is lined with Chineſe tiles. Their temples are chiefly remarkable for the diſagreeable taſte in which they are built, for their capaciouſneſs, their whimſical ornaments, and the uglineſs of the idols they contain. The Chineſe are remarkably fond of bells, which gave name to one of their principal feſtivals. A bell of Pekin weighs 120,000 pound, but its ſound is ſaid to be diſagreeable. The laſt curioſity I ſhall mention, is their fire-works, which in China exceed thoſe of all other nations.

In

In ſhort, every province of China is a ſcene of curioſities. Their buildings, excepting as mentioned, their pagodas, being confined to no order, and ſuſceptible of all kinds of ornaments, have a wild variety, and a pleaſing elegance not void of magnificence, that it is agreeable to the eye, and the imagination, and preſents a diverſity of objects not to be found in European architecture.

CHIEF CITIES.] Little can be ſaid of theſe more than that ſome of them are immenſe, and there is great reaſon to believe their population is much exaggerated. The empire is ſaid to contain 4400 walled cities; the chief of which are Pekin, Nankin, and Canton. The former is the reſidence of the preſent royal family, and is moderately reckoned to contain two million of inhabitants, but Nanking is ſaid to exceed it both in extent and population. The walls of Pekin are 50 cubits high, and are defended by towers, at a bow-ſhot diſtance from each other, with redoubts at every gate. It is divided into two parts like London and Weſtminſter, the Chineſe and the Tartar. The imperial palace, which is no other than an amazing aſſemblage of neat beautiful buildings, but without order or regularity, ſtands in the latter.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] China is ſo happily ſituated, and produces ſuch a variety of materials for manufactures, that it may be ſaid to be the native land of induſtry; but it is an induſtry without taſte or elegance, though carried on with vaſt art and neatneſs. They make paper of the bark of bamboo, and other trees, as well as of cotton, but not comparable for records, or printing, to the European. Their ink, for the uſe of drawing, is well known in England, and is ſaid to be made of oil and lamp-black. I have already mentioned the antiquity of their printing, which they ſtill do by cutting their characters on blocks of wood. The manufacture of that earthen ware, generally known by the name of China, was long a ſecret in Europe, and brought immenſe ſums to that country. The antients knew and eſteemed it highly under the name of Porcelain, but it was of a much better fabric than the modern. Though the Chineſe affect to keep that manufacture ſtill a ſecret, yet it is well known that the principal material is a prepared pulverized earth, and that ſeveral European countries far exceed the Chineſe in manufacturing this commodity. The Chineſe ſilks are generally plain and flowered gawſes, and they are ſaid to have been originally fabricated in that country, where the art of rearing ſilk-worms was firſt diſcovered. They manufacture ſilks likewiſe of a more durable kind, and their cotton, and other cloths, are famous for furniſhing a light warm wear.

Their trade, it is well known, is open to all the European nations, with whom they deal for ready money; for ſuch is the pride and avarice of the Chineſe, that they think no manufactures equal to their own. But it is certain, that ſince the diſcovery of the porcelane manufactures, and the vaſt improvements the Europeans have made in the weaving branches, the Chineſe commerce has been on the decline.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] This was a moſt inſtructive entertaining article, before the conqueſt of China by the Tartars, for though their princes retain many fundamental maxims of the old Chineſe, they have obliged the inhabitants to deviate from the ancient diſcipline in many reſpects. Perhaps their acquaintance with the Europeans may have contributed to their degeneracy. The original plan of the Chineſe government was patriarchal, almoſt in the ſtricteſt ſenſe of the word. Duty and obedience to the father of each family was recommended and enforced in the moſt rigorous manner, but at the ſame time, the emperor was conſidered as the father of the whole. His mandarines, or great officers of ſtate, were looked upon as his ſubſtitutes, and the degrees of ſubmiſſion which were due from the inferior ranks to the ſuperior, were ſettled and obſerved with the moſt ſcrupulous preciſion, and in a manner that to us ſeems highly ridiculous. This ſimple claim of obedience required great addreſs and knowledge of human nature to render it effectual; and the Chineſe legiſlators, Confucius particularly, appear to have been men of wonderful abilities. They enveloped their dictates in a number of myſtical appearances, ſo as to ſtrike the people with awe and veneration. The mandarines had modes of ſpeaking and writing, different from thoſe of other ſubjects, and the people were taught to believe that their princes partook of divinity, ſo that they were ſeldom ſeen, and more ſeldom approached.

Though this ſyſtem preſerved the public tranquillity, for an incredible number of years, yet it had a fundamental effect that often convulſed, and at laſt proved fatal to the ſtate, becauſe the ſame attention was not paid to the military as the civil duties. The Chineſe had paſſions like other men, and ſometimes a weak or wicked adminiſtration, drove them into arms, and a revolution eaſily ſucceeded, which they juſtified by ſaying, that their ſovereign had ceaſed to be their father. During thoſe commotions, one of the parties naturally invited their neighbours the Tartars to their aſſiſtance, and it was thus thoſe barbarians, who had great ſagacity, became acquainted with the weak ſide of their conſtitution, and they availed themſelves accordingly, by invading and conquering the empire.

Beſides

Beſides the great doctrine of patriarchal obedience, the Chineſe had ſumptuary laws, and regulations for the expences of all degrees of ſubjects, which were very uſeful in preſerving the public tranquillity, and preventing the effects of ambition. By their inſtitutions likewiſe the mandarines might remonſtrate to the emperor, but in the moſt ſubmiſſive manner, upon the errors of his government, and when he was a virtuous prince, this freedom was often attended with the moſt ſalutary effects. No country in the world is ſo well provided with magiſtrates for the diſcharge of juſtice, both in civil and criminal matters, as China, but they are often ineffectual through want of public virtue in the execution. The emperor is ſtiled Holy ſon of Heaven, Sole Governor of the Earth, Great Father of his People.

Religion.] This article is nearly connected with the preceding. Though the ancient Chineſe worſhipped idols, and ſeemed to admit of a particular providence, yet their philoſophers and legiſlators were atheiſts or materialiſts, and indulged the people in the worſhip of ſenſible objects, only to make them more ſubmiſſive to government. The Jeſuits long impoſed upon the public of Europe, on this head, and ſuffered their proſelytes to worſhip Tien, pretending, that it was no other than the name of God, but a ſtrict ſcrutiny being made by the court of Rome, it was found to ſignify univerſal matter. The truth is, Confucius, and the Chineſe legiſlators, introduced a moſt excellent ſyſtem of morals among the people, and endeavoured to ſupply the belief of a future ſtate, by preſcribing to them the worſhip of inferior deities. Their morality approximates to that of Chriſtianity, but as we know little of their religion, but through the Jeſuits, we cannot adopt for truth the numerous inſtances, which they tell us of the conformity of the Chineſe with the Chriſtian religion. Thoſe fathers, it muſt be owned, were men of great abilities, and made a wonderful progreſs above a century ago in their converſions; but they miſtook the true character of the emperor who was their patron, for he no ſooner found that they were in fact aſpiring to the civil direction of the government, than he expelled them, levelled their churches with the ground, and prohibited the exerciſe of their religion; ſince which time Chriſtianity has made no figure in China.

Revenues.] Theſe are ſaid by ſome, to amount to twenty millions ſterling a year; but this cannot be meant in money, which does not at all abound in China. The taxes collected for the uſe of the government in rice, and other commodities,

are certainly very great, and very poſſibly amount to that ſum.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] China is, at this time, a far more powerful empire, than it was before its conqueſt by the eaſtern Tartars in 1644. This is owing to the conſummate policy of Chun-tchi, the firſt Tartarian emperor of China, who obliged his hereditary ſubjects to conform themſelves to the Chineſe manners and policy, and the Chineſe to wear the Tartar dreſs and arms. The two nations were thereby incorporated. The Chineſe were appointed to all the civil offices of the empire. The emperor made Pekin the ſeat of his government, and the Tartars quietly ſubmitted to a change of their country and condition which was ſo much in their favour.

This ſecurity, however, of the Chineſe from the Tartars, takes from them all military objects; the Tartar power alone being formidable to that empire. The only danger that threatens it at preſent, is the diſuſe of arms. The Chineſe land army is ſaid to conſiſt of five millions of men, but in theſe are comprehended all who are employed in the collection of the revenue, and the preſervation of the canals, the great roads and the public peace. The imperial guards amount to about 30,000. As to the marine force, it is compoſed chiefly of the junks, we have already mentioned, and other ſmall ſhips, that trade coaſt-ways, or to the neighbouring countries, or to prevent ſudden deſcents.

HISTORY.] The Chineſe pretend as a nation to an antiquity beyond all meaſure of credibility, but though their pretenſions have been repeatedly confuted by learned men, they certainly have evidences of a much higher antiquity, than any people on earth (the Jews perhaps excepted) can produce. Their exactneſs in aſtronomical obſervations, rude as they were in that ſcience, before their commerce with the Europeans; their immemorial uſe of printing; their peaceable patriarchal ſcheme of government, and ſeveral other incidental advantages contributed to this priority. A ſucceſſion of excellent princes, and a duration of domeſtic tranquillity united legiſlation with philoſophy, and produced their Fo-hi, whoſe hiſtory however is wrapped up in myſteries, their Li-Laokum, and above all their Confucius, at once the Solon and the Socrates of China. After all, the internal revolutions of the empire, though rare, produced the moſt dreadful effects, in proportion as its conſtitution was pacific, and they were attended with the moſt bloody exterminations in ſome provinces; ſo that though the Chineſe empire is hereditary, the imperial ſucceſſion was more than once broken into.

Neither

Neither the great Zinghis Khan, nor Tamerlane, though they often defeated the Chineſe, could ſubdue their empire, and neither of them could keep the conqueſts they made there. The celebrated wall, proved but a feeble barrier againſt the arms of thoſe famous Tartars. After their invaſions were over, the Chineſe went to war with the Manchew Tartars, while an indolent worthleſs emperor Tſong-tching, was upon the throne. In the mean while a bold rebel, named Li-cong-tſe, in the province of Se-tchuen, dethroned the emperor, who hanged himſelf, as did moſt of his courtiers and women. Ou-ſan-quey, the Chineſe general, on the frontiers of Tartary, refuſed to recognize the uſurper, and made a peace with Tſongate, the Manchew prince, who drove the uſurper from the throne, and took poſſeſſion of it himſelf, about the year 1644. The Tartar maintained himſelf in his authority, and as has been already mentioned, wiſely incorporated his hereditary ſubjects with the Chineſe, ſo that in effect Tartary became an acquiſition to China. He was ſucceeded by a prince of great natural and acquired abilities, who was the patron of the jeſuits, but knew how to check them when he found them intermeddling with the affairs of his government.

About the year 1661, the Chineſe, under this Tartar family, drove the Dutch out of the iſland of Formoſa, which the latter had taken from the Portugueſe. Though the intercourſe between Europe and China has been greatly improved ſince that time, yet we know very little of the internal events of China, excepting thoſe that affect our trade, which is now at a low paſs in that country, owing to the vaſt diſtance and uncertainty of the voyage, the native chicanery of the Chineſe themſelves, and the Europeans having ſupplied themſelves either at home or from other countries with many of their commodities.

INDIA IN GENERAL.

SITUATION AND BOUNDARIES.] THIS vaſt country is ſituated between the 66th and 109th deg. of eaſt longitude, and between 1 and 40 deg. north latitude. It is bounded on the north by the countries of Uſbec Tartary and Tibet; on the ſouth, by the Indian Ocean; on the eaſt, by China and the Chineſe ſea; and on the weſt, by Perſia and the Indian ſea.

DIVISIONS.] I ſhall divide, as others have done, India at large into three great parts; firſt, the Peninſula of India beyond the Ganges, called the Further Peninſula; ſecond, the

main land, or the Mogul's empire; thirdly, the Peninsula within or on this side the Ganges: all of them vast populous and extended empires. But it is necessary, in order to save many repetitions, to premise an account of some particulars that are in common to those numerous nations, which shall be extracted from the most enlightened of our modern writers who have visited the country in the service of the East India company.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, RELIGION AND GOVERNMENT. Mr. Orme, an excellent and an authentic historian, comprehends the two latter divisions under the title of Indostan. The Mahometans (says he) who are called Moors, of Indostan, are computed to be about ten millions, and the Indians about an hundred millions. Above half the empire is subject to rajahs, or kings, who derive their descent from the old princes of India, and exercise all rights of sovereignty, only paying a tribute to the great mogul, and observing the treaties by which their ancestors recognized his superiority. In other respects, the government of Indostan is full of wise checks upon the overgrowing greatness of any subject; but (as all precautions of that kind depend upon the administration) the indolence and barbarity of the moguls or emperors, and their great viceroys, have rendered them fruitless.

The original inhabitants of India are called Gentoos, or, as others call them, Hindoos. They pretend that Brumma, who was their legislator both in politics and religion, was inferior only to God, and that he existed many thousand years before our account of the creation. This Brumma, probably, was some great and good genius, whose beneficence, like that of the pagan legislators, led his people and their posterity to pay him divine honours. The bramins (for so the Gentoo priests are called) pretend that he bequeathed to them a book called the Vidam, containing his doctrines and institutions; and that though the original is lost, they are still possessed of a commentary upon it, called the Shahstah, which is wrote in the Sanscrit language, now a dead language, and known only to the bramins who study it. The foundation of Brumma's doctrine consisted in the belief of a supreme Being, who has created a regular gradation of beings, some superior, and some inferior to man: in the immortality of the soul, and a future state of rewards and punishments, which is to consist of a transmigration into different bodies, according to the lives they have led in their pre-existent state. From this it appears more than probable that the Pythagorean metempsichosis took its rise in India.

The

The neceſſity of inculcating this ſublime, but otherwiſe complicated doctrine, into the lower ranks, induced the bramins, who are by no means unanimous in their doctrines, to have recourſe to ſenſible repreſentations of the Deity and his attributes; ſo that the original doctrines of Brumma have degenerated to rank ridiculous idolatry, in the worſhip of the moſt hideous figures, either delineated or carved; and the belief of an omnipotent Being is now almoſt loſt among the Gentoos.

Thoſe Indians are particularly diſtinguiſhed from the reſt of mankind by their diviſion into tribes, the four principal of which are the bramins, ſoldiers, labourers, and mechanics. Theſe are again ſubdivided into a multiplicity of inferior diſtinctions. The bramins have an intire power, which they uſe commonly to very bad purpoſes, over the minds of the people; though ſome of them are ſuperſtitious, moral, and innocent. They are all of them ſuch bigots, that excepting the Hallachores, who are the refuſe and outcaſts of the other tribes, and diſowned and deteſted by them all, Mr. Scrafton doubts (whatever the Roman-catholics may pretend) whether there ever was an inſtance of any other of the Gentoos being converted by the miſſionaries. In ſhort, the bramins in general are a deſigning degenerate ſet of men; but Mr. Scrafton, who gives us that picture of them, acknowledges that, amidſt all their errors, they agree in thoſe truths which form the harmony of the univerſe, that there is *one ſupreme God, and that he is beſt pleaſed by charity and good works.*

The ſoldiers are commonly called Rajah-poots, or perſons deſcended from rajahs, and reſide chiefly in the northern provinces, and are generally more fair-complexioned than the people of the ſouthern provinces, who are quite black. Theſe rajah-poots are a robuſt, brave, faithful people, and enter into the ſervice of thoſe who will pay them; but when their leader falls in battle, they think that their engagements to him are finiſhed, and they run off the field without any ſtain upon their reputation.

The labourers are the farmers and all who are concerned in the cultivation of lands.

The mechanics are merchants, bankers, traders of all kinds, and are divided into many ſubordinations.

Thoſe different tribes (ſays Mr. Scrafton) are forbid to intermarry, to cohabit, to eat with each other, or even to drink out of the ſame veſſel with one of another tribe; and every deviation in theſe points, ſubjects them to be rejected by their tribe, renders them for ever polluted, and they are thenceforward obliged to herd with the Hallachores. This diviſion

is

is attended with infinite inconveniencies, for excepting the rajah-poots, no Gentoo thinks of defending himſelf in caſe of invaſions, which, when made from the ſea, have been generally ſucceſsful. The ſame diviſion, however, has, notwithſtanding all the convulſions of their government, and all their oppreſſions under the Mahometans, preſerved their manufactures among them, which, while the ſon can follow no other trade than that of his father, can never be loſt but by exterminating the people.

Different kinds of food are aſſigned to different tribes. The bramins touch nothing that has life; the ſoldiers are permitted to eat veniſon, mutton, and fiſh; the labourers and merchants live differently, according to their ſex and profeſſions, ſome of them being allowed to eat fiſh, but none of them animal food.

The practice of women burning themſelves, upon the death of their huſbands, is now ſaid to be diſuſed all over Indoſtan; and the Gentoos in general chuſe death by famine rather than pollute themſelves by eating a forbidden food. This picture of the Gentoos ſeems to be drawn before our wars with the French in that country; for if we are to believe ſome travellers, they begin now to relax in the practice of their religious duties. The Gentoos are as careful of the cultivation of their lands, and their public works and conveniencies, as the Chineſe; and there ſcarcely is an inſtance of a robbery in all Indoſtan, though the diamond merchants travel without defenſive weapons.

The temples or pagodas of the Gentoos, are ſtupendous, but diſguſtful ſtone buildings, erected in every capital, and under the tuition of the bramins. If the bramins are maſters of any uncommon art or ſcience, they turn it to the purpoſes of profit from their ignorant votaries. Mr. Scrafton ſays, that they know how to calculate eclipſes; and that judicial aſtrology is ſo prevalent among them, that half the year is taken up with unlucky days; the head aſtrologer being always conſulted in their councils. The Mahometans likewiſe encourage thoſe ſuperſtitions, and look upon all the fruits of the Gentoo induſtry as belonging to themſelves. Though the Gentoos are entirely paſſive under all their oppreſſions, and by their ſtate of exiſtence, the practice of their religion, and the ſcantineſs of their food, have nothing of that reſentment in their nature that animates the reſt of mankind; yet they are ſuſceptible of avarice, and ſometimes bury their money, and rather than diſcover it put themſelves to death by poiſon or otherwiſe. This practice, which it ſeems is not uncommon, accounts

accounts for the vaſt ſcarcity of ſilver that till of late prevailed in Indoſtan.

The reaſons abovementioned account likewiſe for their being free of all thoſe paſſions, particularly that of love, and ſenſations that render the reſt of mankind either happy or miſerable. Their perpetual uſe of rice, their chief food, gives them but little nouriſhment; and their marrying early, the males before fourteen, and their women at ten or eleven years of age, keeps them low and feeble in their perſons. A man is in the decline of life at thirty, and the beauty of the women is on decay at eighteen: at twenty-five they have all the marks of old age. We are not therefore to wonder at their being ſoon ſtrangers to all perſonal exertion and vigour of mind; and it is with them a frequent ſaying, that it is better to ſit than to walk, to lie down than to ſit, to ſleep than to wake, and death is the beſt of all.

The Mahometans, who, in Indoſtan, are called Moors, are of Perſian, Turkiſh, Arabic, and other extractions. They early began, in the reigns of the califs of Bagdat, to invade Indoſtan. They penetrated as far as Delhi, which they made their capital. They ſettled colonies in ſeveral places, whoſe deſcendants are called Pytans; but their empire was overthrown by Tamerlane, who founded the Mogul government, which ſtill ſubſiſts. Thoſe princes being ſtrict Mahometans, received under their protection all who profeſſed the ſame religion, and who being a brave active people, counterbalanced the numbers of the natives. They are ſaid to have introduced the diviſion of provinces, over which they appointed ſoubahs; and thoſe provinces, each of which might be ſtiled an empire, were ſubdivided into nabobſhips, each nabob being immediately accountable to his ſoubah, who in proceſs of time became almoſt independent on the emperor, or, as he is called, the great mogul, upon their paying him an annual tribute. The vaſt reſort of Perſian and Tartar tribes have likewiſe ſtrengthened the Mahometan government; but it is obſervable, that in two or three generations, the progeny of all thoſe adventurers, who though they bring nothing with them but their horſes and their ſwords, degenerate into all eaſtern indolence and ſenſuality.

Of all thoſe tribes, the Marattas at preſent make the greateſt figure. They are a kind of mercenaries, who live on the mountains between Indoſtan and Perſia. They commonly ſerve on horſeback, and when well commanded, they have been known to give law even to the court of Delhi. Though they are originally Gentoos, yet they are of bold active ſpirits, and pay no great reſpect to the principles of their religion.

Mr.

Mr. Scrafton ſays, that the Mahometans or Moors are of ſo deteſtable a character, that he never knew above two or three exceptions, and thoſe were among the Tartar and Perſian officers of the army. They are void of every principle even of their own religion; and if they have a virtue, it is an appearance of hoſpitality, but it is an appearance only; for while they are drinking with, and embracing a friend, they will ſtab him to the heart.

The people of Indoſtan are governed by no written laws, and their courts of juſtice are directed by precedents. The Mahometan inſtitutes prevail only in their great towns and their neighbourhood. The empire is hereditary, and the emperor is heir only to his own officers. All lands go in the hereditary line, and continue in that ſtate even down to the ſubtenants, while the lord can pay his taxes, and the latter their rent, both which are immutably fixed in the public books of each diſtrict. The imperial demeſne lands are thoſe of the great rajah families, which fell to Tamerlane and his ſucceſſors. Certain portions of them are called jaghire lands, and are beſtowed by the crown on the great lords or omrahs, and upon their death revert to the emperor; but the rights of the ſubtenants, even of theſe lands, are indefeaſible.

Such are the outlines of the government by which this great empire long ſubſiſted, without almoſt the ſemblance of virtue among its great officers either civil or military. It was ſhaken, however, after the invaſion of Mahomet Shah, which was attended by ſo great a diminution of the imperial authority, that the ſoubahs and nabobs became abſolute in their own governments. Though they could not alter the fundamental laws of property, yet they invented new taxes, which bore hard on the people, to pay their own armies and ſupport their power; ſo that many of the people, a few years ago, after being unmercifully plundered by collectors and taxmaſters, were left to periſh through want. To ſum up the miſery of the inhabitants, thoſe ſoubahs and nabobs, and other Mahometan governors, employ the bramins and the Gentoos themſelves as the miniſters of their rapaciouſneſs and cruelties. Upon the whole, ever ſince the invaſion of Kouli Kan, Indoſtan, from being the beſt regulated government in the world, is become a ſcene of mere anarchy or ſtratocracy; every great man protects himſelf in his tyranny by his ſoldiers, whoſe pay far exceeds the natural riches of his government. As private aſſaſſinations and other murders are here committed with impunity, the people, who know they can be in no worſe eſtate, concern themſelves very little in the revolutions of government. To the above cauſes are owing the preſent

ſucceſſes

ſucceſſes of the Engliſh in Indoſtan; and it is their intereſt to bring, as ſoon as poſſible, that government back to its firſt principles under the family of Tamerlane. The reader, from this repreſentation, may perceive likewiſe, that all that the Engliſh have acquired in point of territory, has been gained from uſurpers and robbers; and their poſſeſſion of it being guarantied by the preſent lawful emperor, is founded upon the laws and conſtitutions of that country.

It may be here proper juſt to obſerve, that the complexion of the Gentoos is black, their hair long, and the features of both ſexes regular. At court, however, the great families are ambitious of intermarrying with Perſians and Tartars, on account of the fairneſs of their complexion, reſembling that of their conqueror Tamerlane and his great generals.

The PENINSULA of INDIA beyond the GANGES, called the FARTHER PENINSULA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 2000	between	1 and 30 north latitude.
Breadth 1000		92 and 109 eaſt longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] THIS peninſula is bounded by Tibet and China, on the north; by China and the Chineſe Sea, on the eaſt; by the ſame ſea and the ſtraits of Malacca, on the ſouth; and by the bay of Bengal and the Hither India, on the weſt.

Grand diviſions.	Subdiviſions.	Chief towns.
On the north-weſt	Acham	Chamdara
	Ava	Ava
	Aracan	Aracan.
On the ſouth-weſt	Pegu	Pegu, E. lon. 97. N. lat. 17-30.
	Martaban	Martaban
	Siam,	Siam, E. lon. 100-55. N. lat. 14-18.
	Malacca	Malacca, E. lon. 102-10. N. lat. 2-12.
On the north-eaſt	Tonquin	Cachao, or Keccio, E. lon. 105. N. lat. 21-30.
	Laos	Lanchang.
On the ſouth-eaſt	Cochin China	Thoanoa
	Cambodia	Cambodia
	Chiampa	Padram.

NAME.] The name of India is taken from the river Indus, which of all others was beſt known to the Perſians. The whole of this peninſula was unknown to the ancients, and is partly ſo to the moderns.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] This country is ſo little known, that authors differ concerning its air, ſome preferring that of the ſouthern, and ſome that of the northern parts. It is generally agreed, that the air of the former is hot and dry, but in ſome places moiſt, and conſequently unhealthy. The climate is ſubject to hurricanes, lightnings, and inundations, ſo that the people build their houſes upon high pillars to defend them from floods; and they have no other idea of ſeaſons, but wet and dry. Eaſterly and weſterly monſoons (which is an Indian word) prevail in this country.

MOUNTAINS.] Theſe run from north to ſouth almoſt the whole length of the country; but the lands near the ſea are low, and annually overflowed in the rainy ſeaſon.

RIVERS.] The chief are Domea, Mecon, Menan, and Ava.

BAYS AND STRAITS.] The bays of Bengal, Siam, and Cochin-China. The ſtraits of Malacca and Sincapora. The promontories of Siam, Romana, and Banſac.

SOIL AND PRODUCT OF THE DIFFERENT NATIONS.] The ſoil of this peninſula is fruitful in general, and produces all the delicious fruits that are found in other countries, as well as roots and vegetables. It abounds likewiſe in ſilks, elephants, and quadrupeds, both domeſtic and wild, that are common in the ſouthern kingdoms of Aſia. The natives drive a great trade in gold, diamonds, rubies, topazes, amethyſts, and other precious ſtones. Tonquin produces little or no corn or wine, but is the moſt healthful country of all the peninſula. In ſome places, eſpecially towards the north, the inhabitants have ſwellings in their throats, owing to the badneſs of their water.

INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] The Tonquineſe are excellent mechanics and fair traders; but greatly oppreſſed by their king and great lords. His majeſty engroſſes the trade, and his factors ſell by retale to the Dutch and other nations. The Tonquineſe are fond of lacquer houſes, which are unwholeſome and poiſonous. The people in the ſouth are a ſavage race, and go almoſt naked, with large ſilver and gold ear-rings, and coral, amber, or ſhell bracelets. In Tonquin and Cochin-China, the two ſexes are ſcarcely diſtinguiſhable by their dreſs, which reſembles that of the Perſians. The people of quality are fond of Engliſh broad-cloth, red or green, and others wear a dark coloured

coloured cotton cloth. In Azem, which is thought one of the beſt countries in Aſia, the inhabitants prefer dogs fleſh to all other animal food. The people of that kingdom pay no taxes, becauſe the king is ſole proprietor of all the gold and ſilver and other metals found in his kingdom. They live, however, eaſily and comfortably. Almoſt every houſe-keeper has an elephant for the conveniency of his wives and women, polygamy being practiſed all over India.

It is unqueſtionable that thoſe Indians, as well as the Chineſe, had the uſe of gunpowder before it was known in Europe, and the invention is generally aſcribed to the Azemeſe. The inhabitants of the ſouthern diviſion of this peninſula go under the name of Malayans, from the neighbouring country of Malacca.

Though the religious ſuperſtitions that prevail in this peninſula are as groſs as thoſe deſcribed under the article of Tibet, and the civil government of the two countries in many particulars reſemble each other, yet the people believe in a future ſtate; and when their kings are interred, a number of animals are buried with them, and ſuch veſſels of gold and ſilver as they think can be of uſe to them in their future life. The people in this peninſula, are commonly very fond of ſhew, and often make an appearance beyond their circumſtances. They are delicate in no part of their dreſs but in their hair, which they buckle up in a very agreeable manner. In their food they are loathſome, for beſides dogs, they eat rats, mice, ſerpents, and ſtinking fiſh. The people of Arraken are equally indelicate in their amours, for they hire Dutch and other foreigners to conſummate the nuptials with their virgins, and value their women moſt when in a ſtate of pregnancy. Their treatment of the ſick is ridiculous beyond belief; and in many places, when a patient is judged to be incurable, he is expoſed on the bank of ſome river, where he is either drowned or devoured by birds or beaſts of prey.

The diverſions common in this country are fiſhing and hunting, the celebration of feſtivals, and their acting comedies by torch-light from evening to morning.

LANGUAGE.] The language of the court of Delhi is Perſian, but in this peninſula it is chiefly Malayan, as we have already obſerved, interſperſed with other dialects.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] It is more than probable that the Egyptians, the nation from which the Greeks and Romans drew the fine arts, owed them to the bramins, and the Gentoos, who are ſometimes called Banians. The names, however, of the legiſlators and bramins, or whoever their learned men were who ſpread their knowledge among the

Eaſt-

Eaſt-Indians, have either periſhed or are obſcured by impenetrable clouds of allegory. Some late Engliſh authors, who were well acquainted with the affairs of Indoſtan, have aſſured us that that empire ſtill contains men of the moſt unſpotted lives and profound knowledge of all the original bramin theology, morality, and civil conſtitutions. Such men are hard to be diſcovered, but when acceſſible, they are modeſt and communicative in all branches of their learning, but thoſe in which they are enjoined an inviolable ſecrecy; and we have ſome well atteſted inſtances where they have ſuffered death rather than betray their ſecrets, which are hereditary in their families. Others, from the profligate ſelfiſh characters of the common bramins, think that all this ſanctity and learning is mere pretext and grimace. I have already mentioned their underſtanding aſtronomy ſo far as to calculate eclipſes.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] Theſe vary in the different countries of this peninſula, but the chief branches have been already mentioned. The inhabitants, in ſome parts, are obliged to manufacture their ſalt out of aſhes. In all handicraft trades that they underſtand, the people are more induſtrious and better workmen than the Europeans; and in weaving, ſewing, embroidering, and ſome other manufactures, it is ſaid that the Indians do as much work with their feet as their hands. Their painting, though they are ignorant of drawing, is amazingly vivid in its colours. The fineneſs of their linen, and their fillagree work in gold and ſilver, are beyond any thing of thoſe kinds to be found in other parts of the world. The commerce of India, in ſhort, is courted by all trading nations in the world, and probably has been ſo from the earlieſt ages: it was not unknown even in Solomon's time; and the Greeks and Romans drew from thence their higheſt materials of luxury. The greateſt ſhare of it, through events foreign to this part of our work, is now centered in England, though that of the Dutch is ſtill very conſiderable; that of the French has been for ſome time on the decline; nor is that of the Swedes and Danes entirely diſcontinued.

CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, RARITIES, AND CITIES.] This article is ſo extenſive, that it requires a ſlight review of the kingdoms that form this peninſula. In Azem, I have already obſerved, the king is proprietor of all the gold and ſilver: he pays little or nothing to the great mogul. We know little or nothing of the kingdom of Tipra, but that it was antiently ſubject to the kings of Arrakan; and that they ſend to the Chineſe gold and ſilk, for which they receive ſilver in return. Arrakan lies to the ſouth of Tipra, and is governed by 12 princes, ſubject to the chief

king, who reſides in his capital. His palace is very large, and contains, as we are told, ſeven idols caſt in gold of two inches thick, each of a man's height, and covered over with diamonds and other precious ſtones. Pegu is about 350 Engliſh miles in length, and almoſt the ſame in breadth. It is uncertain whether is it not at preſent ſubject to the king or emperor of Ava. The riches of the king (whoever he is) are almoſt incredible; ſome of his idols, as big as life, being of maſſy gold and ſilver. His revenues ariſe from the rents of lands, of which he is ſole proprietor, and from duties on merchandiſe; ſo that ſome think him to be the richeſt monarch in the world, excepting the Chineſe emperor. He can bring a million, and on occaſion, a million and a half of ſoldiers to the field, well cloathed and armed; and he is ſaid to be maſter of 800 trained elephants, each with a caſtle on his back holding four ſoldiers. The conſtitution of his empire is of the feudal kind, for he aſſigns lands and towns to his nobles upon military tenures. Macao is the great mart of trade in Pegu.

We know little of the kingdom of Ava; we are not even ſure to whom it belongs. It is ſaid, the honours the king aſſumes are next to divine. His ſubjects trade chiefly in muſk and jewels, rubies and ſaphires. In other particulars, the inhabitants reſemble thoſe of Pegu. In thoſe kingdoms, and indeed in the greateſt part of this peninſula, the doctrines of the Lama or Dairo, the living god, already deſcribed, equally prevail as thoſe of the bramins. Whether the former is not a corruption of the latter, and both of them of ill underſtood Chriſtianity and Judaiſm, is an enquiry ſcarcely worth purſuing. The principles of the Lama are beſt calculated for rendering the king a mere cypher in his government, which is entirely veſted in his prieſts and miniſters.

The kingdom of Laos or Lahos, formerly included that of Jangoma or Jangomay, but we know few particulars of it that can be depended upon. It is ſaid to be immenſely populous, to abound in all the rich commodities as well as the groſs ſuperſtitions of the eaſt, and to be divided into a number of petty kingdoms, all of them holding of one ſovereign, who, like his oriental brethren, is abſolutely deſpotic, and lives in inexpreſſible pomp and magnificence; but being of the Lama religion, is the ſlave of his prieſts and miniſters.

The kingdom of Siam has been often deſcribed by miſſionaries and pretended travellers, in the moſt romantic terms, and therefore we can pay little other credit to their accounts, further than that it a rich and flouriſhing kingdom, and that it approaches in its government, policy, the quick-

neſs and acuteneſs of its inhabitants, very near to the Chi-neſe. The kingdom of Siam is ſurrounded by high mountains, which, on the eaſt ſide, ſeparate it from the kingdoms of Camboja and Laos; on the weſt, from Pegu; and on the north, from Ava, or, more properly, from Jangoma, which is ſubject to Ava; on the ſouth it is waſhed by the river Siam, and has the peninſula of Malacca, the north-weſt part whereof is under its dominion. The extent of the country, however, is very uncertain, and it is but indifferently peopled. The inhabitants, of both ſexes, are more modeſt than any found in the reſt of this peninſula. Great care is taken of the education of their children. Their marriages are ſimple, and performed by their talapoins or prieſts, ſprinkling holy water upon the couple, and repeating ſome prayers. We are told that gold is ſo abundant in this country, that their moſt ponderous images are made of it, and that it is ſeen in vaſt quantities on the outſide of the king's palace. Thoſe relations are found by modern travellers to be the fictions of French and other miſſionaries; for though the country has mines of gold, their ornaments are either exceſſive thin plates of that metal, or a very bright lacker that cover wooden or other materials. The government here is exceſſively deſpotic; even ſervants muſt appear before their maſters in a kneeling poſture; and the mandarines are proſtrated before the king. Siam, the capital, is repreſented as a large city, but ſcarcely a ſixth part of it is inhabited; and the palace is about a mile and a half in circuit. Bankok, which ſtands about 18 leagues to the ſouth of Siam, and 12 miles from the ſea, is the only place towards the coaſt that is fortified with walls, batteries, and braſs cannon; and the Dutch have a factory at Ligor, which ſtands on the eaſt ſide of the peninſula of Malacca, but belonging to Siam.

The peninſula of Malacca is a large country, and contains ſeveral kingdoms or provinces. The Dutch, however, are ſaid to be the real maſters and ſovereigns of the whole peninſula, being in poſſeſſion of the capital (Malacca.) The inhabitants differ but little from brutes in their manner of living; and yet the Malayan language is reckoned the pureſt of any ſpoken in all the Indies. We are told by the lateſt travellers, that its chief produce is tin, pepper, elephants teeth, canes, and gums. Some miſſionaries pretend that it is the Golden Cherſoneſus or Peninſula of the antients, and that the inhabitants uſed to meaſure their riches by bars of gold. The truth is, that the excellent ſituation of this country admits of a trade with India; ſo that when it was firſt diſcovered by the Portugueſe, who were afterwards expelled by the Dutch, Malacca was the richeſt city in the eaſt, next

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to Goa and Ormus, being the key of the China, the Japan, the Moluccas, and the Sunda trade. The country, however, at preſent, is chiefly valuable for its trade with the Chineſe. This degeneracy of the Malayans, who were formerly an induſtrious ingenious people, is eaſily accounted for, by the tyranny of the Dutch, whoſe intereſt it is that they ſhould never recover from their preſent ſtate of ignorance and ſlavery.

The Engliſh carry on a ſmuggling kind of trade in their country ſhips, from the coaſt of Coromandel and the bay of Bengal, to Malacca. This commerce is connived at by the Dutch governor and council among them, who little regard the orders of their ſuperiors, provided they can enrich themſelves.

Cambodia, or Camboja, is a country little known to the Europeans; but according to the beſt information, its greateſt length, from north to ſouth, is about 520 Engliſh miles; and its greateſt breadth, from weſt to eaſt, about 398 miles. This kingdom has a ſpacious river running through it, the banks of which are the only habitable parts of the nation, on account of its ſultry air, and the peſtiferous gnats, ſerpents, and other animals bred in the woods. Its ſoil, commodities, trade, animals, and products by ſea and land, are much the ſame with the other kingdoms of this vaſt peninſula. The betel, a creeping plant of a particular flavour, and, as they ſay, an excellent remedy for all thoſe diſeaſes that are common to the inhabitants of the Eaſt-Indies, is the higheſt luxury of the Cambodians, from the king to the peaſant, but is very unpalatable and diſagreeable to the Europeans. The ſame barbarous magnificence, deſpotiſm of their king, and ignorance of the people, prevail here as throughout the reſt of the peninſula. Between Cambodia and Cochin-China lies the little kingdom of Chiampa, the inhabitants of which trade with the Chineſe, and ſeem therefore to be ſomewhat more civilized than their neighbours.

Cochin-China, or the weſtern China, is ſituated under the torrid zone, and extends, according to ſome authors, about 500 miles in length; but it is much leſs extenſive in its breadth from eaſt to weſt. Laos, Cambodia, and Chiampa, as well as ſome other ſmaller kingdoms, are ſaid to be tributary to Cochin-China, ſome particulars of which I have mentioned in the general view of this peninſula. The manners and religion of the people ſeem to be originally Chineſe, and they are much given to trade. Their king is ſaid to be immenſely rich, and his kingdom enjoys all the advantages of commerce that are found in the other parts of the Eaſt-Indies; but at the ſame time we are told, that this mighty prince, as well

well as the king of Tonquin, are ſubject to the Chineſe emperor. It is reaſonable to ſuppoſe, that all thoſe rich countries were peopled from China, or at leaſt, that they had, ſome time or other, been governed by one head, till the mother empire became ſo large, that it might be convenient to parcel it out, reſerving to itſelf a kind of feudal ſuperiority over them all.

Tonquin has been already mentioned, and I can add little to what has been ſaid, unleſs I was to adopt the fictions of the popiſh miſſionaries. The government of this kingdom, however, is particular. The Tonquineſe had revolted from the Chineſe, which was attended by a civil war. A compromiſe at laſt took place between the chief of the revolt and the repreſentative of the antient kings, by which the former was to have all the executive powers of the government, under the name of the Chouah; but that the Bua, or real king, ſhould retain the royal titles, and be permitted ſome inconſiderable civil prerogatives within his palace, from which neither he nor any of his family can ſtir without the permiſſion of the chouah. This hiſtory ſeems to be of the lama extraction, or at leaſt copied from that worſhip.

The chouah reſides generally in the capital Cachao, which is ſituated near the center of the kingdom. The bua's palace is a vaſt ſtructure, and has a fine arſenal. The Engliſh have a very flouriſhing houſe on the north ſide of their city, conveniently fitted up with ſtorehouſes and office-houſes, a noble dining-room, and handſome apartments for the merchants factors, and officers of the company.

The above is the imperfect account I am enabled, without departing from the rules of probability, to give of this vaſt peninſula. Its rarities, conſiſting of houſes overlaid with gold, and ſolid idols of the ſame metal, adorned with an infinite number of precious ſtones and jewels, are mentioned by many travellers; but it is difficult to give them credit, when we conſider the undiſciplined weakneſs of the inhabitants, their ſuperſtition, indolence, ignorance, and native timidity; which muſt render them a prey not only to European adventurers, but to the Tartar conquerors of China. To this we may add, the univerſally admitted paſſion of thoſe people for oſtentation, and the many diſcoveries that have been made by candid travellers, of their diſplaying plated or gilded furniture and ornaments, at which they are wonderfully expert, for thoſe of maſſy gold.

The poſſeſſion of rubies, and other precious ſtones of an extraordinary ſize, and even of white or party-coloured elephants, convey among thoſe credulous people a pre-eminence

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of rank and royalty, and has ſometimes occaſioned bloody wars. After all, it muſt be acknowledged that however dark the accounts we have of thoſe kingdoms may be, yet there is ſufficient evidence to prove that they are immenſely rich in all the treaſures of nature; but that thoſe advantages are attended with many natural calamities, ſuch as floods, volcanos, earthquakes, tempeſts, and above all, rapacious and poiſonous animals, which render the poſſeſſion of life, even for an hour, precarious and uncertain.

INDIA within the GANGES, or the Empire of the GREAT MOGUL.

SITUATION AND EXTENT; including the peninſula weſt of the Ganges.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 2000	between	7 and 40 north latitude.
Breadth 1500		66 and 92 eaſt longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] THIS empire is bounded by Uſbec Tartary and Tibet, on the north; by Tibet and the Bay of Bengal, on the eaſt; by the Indian Ocean, on the ſouth; by the ſame and Perſia, on the weſt. The main land being the Mogul empire, or Indoſtan properly ſo called.

Grand diviſions.	Provinces.	Chief towns.
The north-eaſt diviſion of India, containing the provinces of Bengal, on the mouths of the Ganges, and thoſe of the mountains of Naugracut	Bengal Proper	Calcutta
		Fort William
		Huegly — } Engliſh
		Dacca — }
		Malda, Eng. and Dutch
		Chatigan
		Caſſumbazar
	Naugracut —	Naugracut
	Jeſuat — —	Rajapour
	Patna — —	Patna
	Necbal — —	Necbal
	Gore — —	Gore
	Rotas — —	Rotas
The north-weſt diviſion on the frontiers of Perſia, and on the river of Indus	Soret — —	Jaganal
	Jeſſelmere ——	Jaſſelmere
	Tata, or Sinda	Tata
	Bucknor ——	Bucknor
	Multan ——	Multan
	Haican — —	Haican
	Cabul — —	Cabul

Grand divisions.	Provinces.	Chief towns.
	Candish	Medipour
	Berar	Berar
	Chitor	Chitor
	Ratipor	Ratipor
	Narvar	Narvar
	Gualeor	Gualeor
The middle division	Agra	Agra
	Deily	DELLY, E. lon. 79. N. lat. 28.
	Lahor, or Pencah	Lahor
	Hendowns	Hendowns
	Cassimere	Cassimere
	Jengapour	Jengapour
	Asmer, or Bando	Asmer.

AIR AND SEASONS.] The winds in this climate generally blow for six months from the south, and six from the north. April, May, and the beginning of June, are excessively hot, but refreshed by sea breezes: and in some dry seasons, the hurricanes, which tear up the sands and let them fall in dry showers, are excessively disagreeable. The English, and consequently the Europeans in general, who arrive at Indostan, are commonly seized with some illness, such as flux or fever, in their different appearances; but when properly treated, especially if the patients are abstemious, they recover, and afterwards prove healthy.

MOUNTAINS.] The most remarkable mountains are those of Caucasus and Naugracut, which divide India from Persia, Usbec Tartary, and Tibet, and are inhabited by Marattas, Afghans or Patans, and other people more warlike than the Gentoos. As to the mountains of Balagate, which run almost the whole length of India from north to south, they are so high that they stop the western monsoon, the rains beginning sooner on the Malabar coast than they do on the coast of Coromandel.

RIVERS.] These are the Indus and the Ganges, both of them known to the antients, and held in the highest esteem, and even veneration, by the modern inhabitants. Besides those rivers, many others water this country.

SEAS, BAYS AND CAPES.] These are the Indian ocean; the bay of Bengal; the gulph of Cambaya; the straits of Ramanakoel; cape Comorin and Diu.

INHABITANTS.] I have already made a general review of this great empire, and I have only to add to what I have said of their religion and sects, that the fakirs are a kind of Mahometan mendicants or beggars, who travel about practising the greatest austerities, but many of them are impostors. Their number is said to be 800,000. Another set of mendicants are the

the joghis, who are idolaters, and are ſuppoſed to be twelve millions in number, but all of them vagabonds, and lazy impoſtors, who live by amuſing the credulous Gentoos with fooliſh fictions. The Banians, who are ſo called from their affected innocence of life, ſerve as brokers, and profeſs the Gentoo religion, or ſomewhat like it.

The Perſees, or Parſes, of Indoſtan, are originally the Gaurs, deſcribed in Perſia, but are a moſt induſtrious people, particularly in weaving, and architecture of every kind. They pretend to be poſſeſſed of the works of Zoroaſter, whom they call by various names, and which ſome Europeans think contain many particulars that would throw lights upon the antient hiſtory both ſacred and profane. This opinion is countenanced by the few parcels of thoſe books that have been publiſhed; but ſome are of opinion that the whole is a modern impoſture, founded upon ſacred, traditional, and profane hiſtories and religions.

The nobility and people of rank delight in hunting with the bow as well as the gun, and often train the leopards to the ſports of the field. They affect ſhady walks and cool fountains, like other people in hot countries. They are fond of tumblers, mountebanks, and jugglers; of barbarous muſic, both in wind and ſtring inſtruments, and play at cards in their private parties. Their houſes make no appearance, and thoſe of the commonalty are poor and mean, and generally thatched, which renders them ſubject to fire; but the manufacturers chuſe to work in the open air; and the inſides of houſes belonging to principal perſons are commonly neat, commodious, and pleaſant, nay many of them magnificent.

COMMERCE OF INDOSTAN.] I have already mentioned this article, as well as the manufactures of India; but the Mahometan merchants here carry on a trade that has not been deſcribed, I mean that with Mecca, in Arabia, from the weſtern parts of this empire, up the Red-Sea. This trade is carried on in a particular ſpecies of veſſels called junks, the largeſt of which, we are told, beſides the cargoes, will carry 1700 Mahometan pilgrims to viſit the tomb of their prophet. At Mecca they meet with Abyſſinian, Egyptian, and other traders, to whom they diſpoſe of their cargoes for gold and ſilver; ſo that a Mahometan junk returning from this voyage is often worth 200,000 l.

PROVINCES, CITIES, AND OTHER BUILDINGS, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE.] Theſe are pretty uncertain, eſpecially ſince the late revolutions of the empire.

Guzarat is a maritime province on the gulph of Cambaya, and one of the fineſt in India, but inhabited by a fierce rapa-

cious people. It is said to contain 35 cities. Amed-Abad is the capital of the province, where there is an English factory, and is said, in wealth, to vie with the richest towns in Europe. About 43 French leagues distant lies Surat, where the English have a flourishing factory. It was taken by them in the late war, but it is uncertain whether it is still in their possession.

The province of Agra is the largest in all Indostan, containing 40 large towns and 340 villages. Agra is the greatest city, and its castle the largest fortification in all the Indies. The Dutch have a factory there, but the English have none.

The city of Dehli, which is the capital of that province, is likewise the capital of Indostan. It is described as being a fine city, and containing the imperial palace, which is adorned with the usual magnificence of the East. Its stables formerly contained 12,000 horses, brought from Arabia, Persia, and Tartary; and 500 elephants. When the forage is burnt up by the heats of the season, as is often the case, these horses are said to be fed in the morning with bread, butter, and sugar, and in the evening with rice-milk properly prepared.

Tatta, the capital of Sinda, is a large city; and it is said that a plague which happened in 1699 carried off above 80,000 of its manufacturers in silk and cotton. It is still famous for the manufacture of palanquins, which are a kind of canopied couches, on which the great men all over India, Europeans as well as natives, repose when they appear abroad. They are carried by four men, who will trot along, morning and evening, 40 miles a day; 10 being usually hired, who carry the palanquin by turns, four at a time. Though a palanquin is dear at first cost, yet the porters may be hired for nine or ten shillings a month each, out of which they maintain themselves. The Indus, at Tatta, is about a mile broad, and famous for its fine carp.

Though the province of Multan is not very fruitful, yet it yields excellent iron and canes; and the inhabitants, by their situation, are enabled to deal with the Persians and Tartars yearly for above 60,000 horses.

The province of Cassimere, being surrounded with mountains, is difficult of access, but when entered, it appears to be the paradise of the Indies. It is said to contain 100,000 villages, to be stored with cattle and game, without any beasts of prey. The capital (Cassimere) stands by a large lake; and both sexes, the women especially, are almost as fair as the Europeans, and are said to be witty, dexterous, and ingenious.

The province and city of Lahor formerly made a great figure in the Indian hiſtory, and is ſtill one of the largeſt and fineſt provinces in the Indies, producing the beſt ſugars of any in Indoſtan. Its capital was once about nine miles long, but is now much decayed. We know little of the provinces of Ayud, Varad, Bekar, and Hallabas, that is not in common with the other provinces of Indoſtan, excepting that they are inhabited by a hardy race of men, who ſeem never to have been conquered, and though they ſubmit to the moguls, live in an eaſy, independent ſtate. In ſome of thoſe provinces many of the European fruits, plants, and flowers, thrive as in their native ſoil.

Bengal, of all the Indian provinces, is perhaps the moſt intereſting to an Engliſh reader. It is eſteemed to be the ſtorehouſe of the Eaſt-Indies. Its fertility exceeds that of Egypt after being overflowed by the Nile; and the produce of its ſoil conſiſts of rice, ſugar-canes, corn, ſeſamum, ſmall mulberry, and other trees. Its callicoes, ſilks, ſalt-petre, lakka, opium, wax, and civet, go all over the world; and proviſions here are in vaſt plenty, and incredibly cheap, eſpecially pullets, ducks, and geeſe. The country is interſected by canals cut out of the Ganges for the benefit of commerce; and extends near 100 leagues on both ſides the Ganges, being full of cities, towns, villages and caſtles.

In Bengal, the worſhip of the Gentoos is practiſed in its greateſt purity; and their ſacred river (Ganges) is in a manner lined with their magnificent pagods or temples. The women, notwithſtanding their religion, are ſaid by ſome to be laſcivious and enticing.

The principal Engliſh factory in Bengal is at Calcutta, and is called Fort William; it is ſituated on the river Hughly, the moſt weſterly branch of the Ganges. The fort itſelf is ſaid to be irregular, and untenable againſt diſciplined troops; but the ſervants of the company have provided themſelves with an excellent houſe, and moſt convenient apartments for their own accommodation. As the town itſelf may be now ſaid to be in poſſeſſion of the company, an Engliſh civil government, by a mayor and aldermen, has been introduced into it. It does not, however, ſeem to give general ſatisfaction, on account of the vaſt influence which the company has always over the magiſtrates, and many complaints from private perſons have lately reached England.

In 1756, the Indian nabob, or viceroy, quarrelled with the company, and inveſted Calcutta with a large body of black troops. The governor, and ſome of the principal perſons of the place, threw themſelves, with their chief effects,

on

on board the ſhips in the river; they who remained, for ſome hours, bravely defended the place; but their ammunition being expended, they ſurrendered upon terms. The ſoubah, a capricious, unfeeling tyrant, inſtead of obſerving the capitulation, forced Mr. Holwell, the governor's chief ſervant, and 145 Britiſh ſubjects, into a little but ſecure priſon, called the Black-hole, a place about eighteen feet ſquare, and ſhut up from almoſt all communication of free air. Their miſeries during the night were inexpreſſible, and before morning no more than twenty-three were found alive, the reſt dying of ſuffocation, which was generally attended with a horrible phrenſy. Among thoſe ſaved was Mr. Holwell himſelf, who has written a moſt affecting account of the cataſtrophe. The inſenſible tyrant returned to his capital, after plundering the place, imagining he had routed the Engliſh out of his dominions; but the ſeaſonable arrival of admiral Watſon and colonel (now lord) Clive, put them once more, with ſome difficulty, in poſſeſſion of the place; and the war was concluded by the glorious battle of Plaſſey, gained by the colonel, and the death of the tyrant Suraja Dowla, in whoſe place Mhir Jaffeir was advanced to the ſoubahſhip.

The capital of Bengal, where the nabob keeps his court, is Patna or Makſudabad; and Bannares, lying in the ſame province, is the Gentoo univerſity, and celebrated for its ſanctity.

Chandenagore, is the principal place poſſeſſed by the French in Bengal: it lies higher up the river than Calcutta. But though ſtrongly fortified, furniſhed with a garriſon of 500 Europeans, and 1200 Indians, and defended by 123 pieces of cannon and three mortars, it was taken in the late war by the Engliſh admirals Watſon and Pocock, and colonel Clive. Hugley, which lies fifty miles to the north of Calcutta, upon the Ganges, is a place of prodigious trade for the richeſt of all Indian commodities. The Dutch have here a well fortified factory. The ſearch for diamonds is carried on by about 10,000 people from Saumelpour, which lies thirty leagues to the north of Hugley, for about fifty miles farther. Dakka is ſaid to be the largeſt city of Bengal, and the tide comes up to its walls. It contains an Engliſh and a Dutch factory. The other chief towns are Caſſumbazar, Chinchura, Barnagur, and Maldo; beſides a number of other places of leſs note, but all of them rich in the Indian manufactures.

We know little concerning the province of Malva, which lies to the weſt of Bengal, but that it is as fertile as the other provinces, and that its chief city is Ratiſpor. The province of Kandiſh includes that of Berar and part of Orixa, and its capital is Brampur, ſo that it is of prodigious extent, and carries

carries on a vaſt trade in chintzes, callicoes, and embroidered ſtuffs.

The above are the provinces belonging to the mogul's empire to the north of what is properly called the peninſula within the Ganges. Thoſe that lie to the ſouthward fall into the deſcription of the peninſula itſelf.

HISTORY.] It is not at all to the credit of our Eaſt-India company's ſervants, that notwithſtanding their long reſidence in Indoſtan, they differ in their accounts of the revolutions of that country. All we know for certain is, that Tamerlane made a deep impreſſion upon this country, and that the preſent emperor pretends to reign in his right. The hiſtory of his immediate deſcendents has been variouſly repreſented, but all agree in the main that they were magnificent and deſpotic princes, that they committed their provinces, as has been already obſerved, to rapacious governors, or to their own ſons, by which their empire was often miſerably torn in pieces. At length, towards the middle of the laſt century, the famous Aurengzebe, in the year 1667, though the youngeſt among many ſons of the reigning emperor, after defeating or murdering all his brethren, mounted the throne of Indoſtan, and may be conſidered as the real founder and legiſlator of the empire. He was a great and a politic prince, and the firſt who extended his dominion, though it was little better than nominal, over the peninſula within the Ganges, which is at preſent ſo well known to the Engliſh. He lived ſo late as the year 1707, and it is ſaid that ſome of his great officers of ſtate were alive in the year 1750. From what has been already ſaid of this empire, Aurengzebe ſeems to have left too much power to the governors of his diſtant provinces, and to have been at no pains in preventing the effects of that dreadful deſpotiſm, which while in his hands preſerved the tranquillity of his empire, but when it deſcended to his weak indolent ſucceſſors, occaſioned its overthrow.

In 1713, four of his grandſons diſputed the empire, which, after a bloody ſtruggle, fell to the eldeſt, Mauzo'din, who took the name of Jehandar Shah. This prince was a ſlave to his pleaſures, and was governed by his miſtreſs ſo abſolutely, that his great omrahs conſpired againſt him, and raiſed to the throne one of his nephews, who ſtruck off his uncle's head. The new emperor, whoſe name was Furrukhſir, was governed and at laſt enſlaved by two brothers of the name of Seyd, who abuſed his power ſo groſsly, that being afraid to puniſh them publicly, he ordered them both to be privately aſſaſſinated. They diſcovered his intention, and dethroned the emperor, in whoſe place they raiſed a grandſon of Aurengzebe, by his daughter,

daughter, a youth of seventeen years of age, after imprisoning and strangling Furrukhsir. The young emperor proved disagreeable to the brothers, and being soon poisoned, they raised to the throne his elder brother, who took the title of Shah Jehan. The rajahs of Indostan, whose ancestors had entered into stipulations, or what may be called *pacta conventa*, when they admitted the Mogul family, took the field against the two brothers, but the latter were victorious, and Shah Jehan was put in tranquil possession of the empire, but died in 1719. He was succeeded by another prince of the Mogul race, who took the name of Mohammed Shah, and entered into private measures with his great rajahs for destroying the Seyds, who were declared enemies to Nizam al Muluck, one of Aurengzebe's favourite generals. Nizam, it is said, was privately encouraged by the emperor to declare himself against the brothers, and to proclaim himself soubah of Decan, which belonged to one of the Seyds, who was assassinated by the emperor's order, who immediately advanced to Delhi to destroy the other brother; but he no sooner understood what had happened, than he proclaimed the sultan Ibrahim, another of the Mogul princes, emperor. A battle ensued in 1720, in which the emperor was victorious, and is said to have used his conquest with great moderation, for he remitted Ibrahim to the prison from whence he had been taken; and Seyd, being likewise a prisoner, was condemned to perpetual confinement, but the emperor took possession of his vast riches. Seyd did not long survive his confinement; and upon his death, the emperor abandoned himself to the same course of pleasures that had been so fatal to his predecessors. As to Nizam, he became now the great imperial general, and was often employed against the Marattas, whom he defeated, when they had almost made themselves masters of Agra and Dehli. He was confirmed in his soubahship, and was considered as the first subject in the empire. Authors, however, are divided as to his motives for inviting Nadir Shah, otherwise Kouli Khan, the Persian monarch, to invade Indostan. It is thought that he had intelligence of a strong party formed against him at court; but the truth perhaps is, that Nizam did not think that Nadir Shah could have success, and at first wanted to make himself useful by opposing him. The success of Nadir Shah is well known, and the immense treasure which he carried from Indostan in 1739. Besides those treasures, he obliged the Mogul to surrender to him all the lands to the west of the rivers Attock and Synd, comprehending the provinces of Peyshor, Kabul, and Gagna, with many other rich

rich and populous principalities, the whole of them almoſt equal in value to the crown of Perſia itſelf.

This invaſion coſt the Gentoos 200,000 lives. As to the plunder made by Nadir Shah, ſome accounts, and thoſe too ſtrongly authenticated, make it amount to the incredible ſum of two hundred and thirty-one millions ſterling, as mentioned by the London Gazette of thoſe times. The moſt moderate ſay that Nadir's own ſhare amounted to conſiderably above ſeventy millions. Be that as it will, the invaſion of Nadir Shah may be conſidered as putting a period to the greatneſs of the Mogul empire in the houſe of Tamerlane. The hiſtory of it, ſince that time, is leſs known than that of Tamerlane itſelf. According to the beſt accounts, upon the retreat of Nadir Shah, who left the emperor in poſſeſſion of his dignity, the Patans invaded his dominions; and ſo treacherous were the emperor's generals and miniſtry, that none of them would head an army againſt them, till the emperor's ſon, a youth of eighteen years of age, bravely undertook the command, puniſhed the conſpiracy that had been formed againſt his father, and completely defeated the invaders. During this campaign, the emperor was ſtrangled by his vizier: but by a courſe of well-acted diſſimulation, the young emperor, who was called Amet Shah, found means to put the conſpirators to death, but ſoon after was driven from his throne by a freſh invaſion of the Patans and Marattas. Some pretend that one Allum Geer was firſt proclaimed emperor, and then murdered by the ſame vizier, who raiſed another prince to the throne. Whether this Allum Geer is the ſame with Amet Shah is uncertain, as are the intermediate revolutions that followed. At preſent, the imperial dignity of Indoſtan is veſted in Shah Zadah, who is univerſally acknowledged to be the true heir of the Tamerlane race; but his power is feeble, and he depends upon the protection of the Engliſh, whoſe intereſt it is to ſupport him, as his authority is the beſt legal guarantee.

As to the government and conſtitution of Indoſtan, we muſt refer to what we have already obſerved. The emperor of Indoſtan, or great Mogul (ſo called from being deſcended from Tamerlane the Mongul or Mogul Tartar) on his advancement to the throne, aſſumes ſome grand title; as, *The Conqueror of the World*; *the Ornament of the Throne*, &c. but he is never crowned.

THE PENINSULA WITHIN THE GANGES.

Grand diviſions.	Provinces.	Chief towns.
The ſouth-eaſt coaſt of India, ſituate on the bay of Bengal, uſually called the coaſt of Coromandel	Madura	Madura
	Tanjour	Tanjour
		Trincombar, Danes
	Eaſt ſide of Biſnagar, or Carnate	Negapatan, Dutch
		Biſnagar
		Portanova, Dutch
		Fort St. David, Engliſh
		Pondicherry, Conymere, French
		Coblon
		Sadraſapatan, Dutch
		St. Thomas, Portugueſe
		Fort St. George, or Madraſs, E. lon. 80-32. N. lat. 13-11. Engliſh.
		Pellicate, Dutch
	Golconda	Golconda
		Gani, or Coulor, diamond mines
		Muſſulapatan, Engliſh and Dutch
		Vizacapatan, Engliſh
		Bimlipatan, Dutch
	Orixa	Orixa
		Ballaſore, Engliſh
The ſouth-weſt coaſt of India, uſually called the coaſt of Malabar	Weſt ſide of Beſnagar, or Carnate	Tegapatan, Dutch
		Angengo, Engliſh
		Cochin, Dutch
		Callicut, Tillicherry, Engliſh
		Canannore, Dutch
		Monguelore, Baſſilore Dutch and Portugueſe
		Raalconda, diamond mines.
	Decan, or Viſiapour	Cawar, Engliſh
		Goa, Portugueſe
		Rajapore, French
		Dabal, Engliſh
		Dundee, Shoule, Portugueſe
		Bombay, iſle and town, Engliſh, 19-18 N. lat. 73-6 E. lon.
		Baſſaim, Salſette, Portugueſe

Grand diviſions.	Provinces.	Chief towns.
The ſouth-weſt coaſt of India, uſually called the coaſt of Malabar	Cambaya, or Guzarat	Damon, Portugueſe Surat, E. lon. 72-25. N. lat. 21-10 Swalley Barak, Engliſh and Dutch Amedabat Cambaya Dieu, Portugueſe.

CLIMATE, SEASONS, AND PRODUCE.] The chain of mountains already mentioned, running from north to ſouth, renders it winter on one ſide of this peninſula, while it is ſummer on the other. About the end of June, a ſouth-weſt wind begins to blow from the ſea, on the coaſt of Malabar, which, with continual rains, laſt four months, during which time all is ſerene upon the coaſt of Coromandel (the weſtern and eaſtern coaſts being ſo denominated.) Towards the end of October, the rainy ſeaſon, and the change of the monſoon begins on the Coromandel coaſt, which being deſtitute of good harbours, renders it extremely dangerous for ſhips to remain there, during that time, and to this is owing the periodical returns of the Engliſh ſhipping to Bombay, upon the Malabar coaſt. The air is naturally hot in this peninſula, but is refreſhed by breezes, the wind altering every twelve hours; that is, from midnight to noon it blows off the land, when it is intolerably hot, and during the other twelve hours from the ſea, which laſt proves a great refreſhment to the inhabitants of the coaſt. The produce of the ſoil is the ſame with that of the other part of the Eaſt-Indies. The like may be ſaid of their quadrupeds, fiſh, fowl, and noxious creatures and inſects.

INHABITANTS.] The inhabitants of this part are more black in complexion, than thoſe of the other peninſula of India, though lying nearer to the equator, which makes ſome ſuſpect them to be the deſcendents of an ancient colony from Ethiopia. The greateſt part of them have but a faint notion at preſent, of any allegiance they owe to the emperor of Indoſtan, whoſe tribute from thence has been ever ſince the invaſion of Shah Nadir, intercepted by their ſoubahs and nabobs, who now exerciſe an independent power in the government, though even Suraja Dowla was glad to receive a deputation from the emperor, now reigning, or his father; but beſides thoſe ſoubahs, and other imperial viceroys, many eſtates in this peninſula belong to rajahs or lords, who are the deſcendents of their old princes, and look upon themſelves as being independent on the mogul, and his authority.

PROVINCES, CITIES, AND OTHER BUILDINGS, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } From what has been said above, this peninsula is rather to be divided into great governments, or soubahships, than into provinces. One soubah often engrosses several provinces, and fixes the seat of his government, according to his own conveniency. I shall speak of those provinces, as belonging to the Malabar or Coromandel coast, the two great objects of English commerce in that country; and first, of the eastern, or Coromandel coast.

Madura begins at Cape Comorin, the southermost point of the peninsula. It is about the bigness of the kingdom of Portugal, and is said to be governed by a sovereign king, who has under him seventy tributary princes, each of them independent in his own dominions, but paying him a tax. The chief value of this kingdom seems to consist of a pearl fishery upon its coast. Tanjour is a little kingdom, lying to the east of Madura. The soil is fertile, and its prince, rich. Within it lies the Danish East-India settlement of Tranquebar, and the Dutch fortress of Negapatan, and the capital city is Tanjour.

The Carnatic, as it is now called, is well known to the English. It is bounded on the east by the bay of Bengal, on the north by the river Christina, which divides it from Golkonda; on the west by Visapur, or Visiapur, and, on the south, by the kingdoms of Messaur and Tanjour; being in length, from south to north, about 345 miles, and 276 in breadth from east to west. The capital of the Carnatic is Bisnagar, and the country in general is esteemed healthful, fertile, and populous. Within this country, upon the Coromandel coast, lies fort St. David's, belonging to the English, with a district round it. The fort is strong, and of great importance to our trade. Five leagues to the north, lies Pondicherry, once the emporium of the French in the East-Indies, but now demolished by the English, who took it in the late war. It was restored by the peace of Fontainbleau, in 1763.

Fort St. George, better known by the name of Madrass, is the capital of the English East-India company's dominions in the East-Indies, and is distant eastward from London, about 4800 miles. Great complaints have been made of the situation of this fort. No pains have been spared by the company, in rendering it impregnable to any force that can be brought against it by the natives. It protects two towns, called, from the complexions of their several inhabitants, the White and the Black. The White Town is fortified, and contains an English corporation of a mayor and aldermen. Nothing has been omitted to mend the natural badness of its situation,

which seems originally to be owing to the neighbourhood of the diamond mines, which are but a week's journey distant. Those mines are under the tuition of a mogul officer, who lets them out by admeasurement, and enclosing the contents by pallisadoes, all diamonds above a certain weight belong to the emperor. The district belonging to Madrass, is of little value for its product, and must import its own provisions. 80,000 inhabitants of various nations, are said to be dependent upon Madrass; but its safety consists in the superiority of the English by sea. It carries on a considerable trade with China, Persia, and Mocha.

The reader needs not be informed of the immense fortunes acquired by the English, upon this coast, within these twenty years. The governor of Madrass has a council to assist him, and when he goes abroad, appears in vast splendor. The differences that now rage among the directors and proprietors of the company in England, prevent my saying any thing concerning the police of this government. The company has received all the encouragement and assistance the English parliament can give them, even to the introducing of martial law into their possessions. There seems, however, to be some fundamental errors in their constitution. The directors consider the riches acquired by their governors and other servants, as being plundered from the company, and of late they have sent out superintendents to controul their governors and overgrown servants, but with what success time must demonstrate. As this is a subject of the greatest importance, that ever perhaps occurred in the geography of a commercial country, the reader will indulge me in one or two reflections, as I am not to resume the subject.

The English East-India company, through the distractions of the Mogul empire, the support of our government, and the undaunted but fortunate successes of their military officers, have acquired so amazing a property in this peninsula, and in Indostan, that it is superior to the revenues of many crowned heads, and some of their own servants pretend, that when all their expences are paid, their clear revenue amounts to near two millions sterling, out of which they are to pay 400,000 l. annually, to the government, while they are suffered to enjoy their revenues. How that revenue is collected, or from whence it arises, is best known to the company, part of it however has been granted in property, and part of it is secured on mortgages, for discharging their expences in supporting the interests of their friends, the emperor, and the respective soubahs and nabobs they have assisted.

Be that as it may, this company exercises at present many rights appropriated to sovereignty, such as those of holding forts, coining money, and the like. Those powers are undoubtedly incompatible with the principles of a commercial limited company, and it became the dignity of the English government, to send out an officer of their own, (as they have done in the person of Sir John Lindsay) to take such measures with the Eastern princes and potentates, as may render the acquisitions of the company permanent and national.

Without entering into any disputes agitated of late between the directors and the government, the possibility of such a permanency and even extending our influence in India, is pretty evident. From what has been already said, the Gentoos are entirely passive in all the revolutions of their government. The Moors, or Mahometans, ignorant and treacherous as they are, appear to have no violent attachments to any religious principle, and are abject enough to live under any form of government, that their emperor shall prescribe; nor are they at present, when the English are his friends, in any condition to dispute their joint wills. These considerations manifest the wisdom of not driving them into desperate measures, and thereby effecting a union of their forces, which must prove fatal to the British interest there; and in any event must render it precarious, unless supported in the name, and by the authority of the British empire.

Polikat, lying to the north of Madras, belongs to the Dutch. We know little of the kingdom and capital of Ikkari. The celebrated Heyder Ally, with whom the company has lately made a peace, is said to be a native of the kingdom of Mesur, which lies to the south-west of the Carnatic; and the Christians of the apostle St. Thomas, live at the foot of the mountains Gatti, that separate Mesar from Malabar. I have already mentioned the kingdom of Golkonda, which besides its diamonds, is famous for the cheapness of its provisions, and for making white wine of grapes that are ripe in January. Golkonda is said to be subject to a prince, who, though tributary to the Mogul, is immensely rich, and can raise 100,000 men. The capital of his dominions is called Bagnagar, but the kingdom takes its name from the city of Golkonda. East-south-east of Golkonda, lies Masulipatan, where the English and Dutch have factories. The English have also factories at Ganjam, and Vizigapatam, on this coast; and the Dutch at Narsipore. The province of Orixa, from whence the English company draw great part of their revenues, lies to the north of Golkonda, extending in length

from eaſt to weſt, about 550 miles, and in breadth about 240. It is governed likewiſe by a tributary prince. In this province ſtands the idolatry temple of Jagaryunt, which they ſay is attended by 500 prieſts. The idol is an irregular pyramidal black ſtone, of about 4 or 500 weight, with two rich diamonds near the top, to repreſent eyes, and the noſe and mouth painted with vermillion.

The country of Dekan comprehends ſeveral large provinces, and ſome kingdoms, particularly thoſe of Baglana, Balagate, Telenga, and the kingdom of Viſiapur. The truth is, the names, dependencies, and governments of thoſe provinces, are extremely unſettled; they having been reduced by Aurengzebe, or his father, and ſubject to almoſt annual revolutions and alterations. Modern geographers are not agreed upon their ſituation and extent, but we are told, that the principal towns are Aureng-abad, and Dolt-abad, or Dowlet-abad; and that the latter is the ſtrongeſt place in all Indoſtan. Near it lies the famous pagods of Elora, in a plain about two leagues ſquare. The tombs, chapels, temples, pillars, and many thouſand figures that ſurround it, are ſaid to be cut out of the natural rock, and to ſurpaſs all the other efforts of human art. Telenga lies on the eaſt of Golkonda, and its capital Beder, contains a garriſon of 3000 men. The inhabitants of this province ſpeak a language peculiar to themſelves.

Baglana lies to the weſt of Telenga, and forms the ſmalleſt province of the empire; its capital is Mouler. The Portugueze territory begins here at the port of Daman, twenty-one leagues ſouth of Surat, and extends almoſt twenty leagues to the north of Goa.

Viſiapur is a large kingdom tributary to the Mogul, but its particular extent is uncertain. The weſtern part is called Konkan, which is intermingled with the Portugueze poſſeſſions. The king of Viſiapur is ſaid to have a yearly revenue of ſix millions ſterling, and to bring to the field 150,000 ſoldiers. His capital is of the ſame name, and his country very fruitful. The principal places on this coaſt are, Daman, Baſſaim Trapor, or Tarapor, Chawl, Dandi-Rajahpur, Dabul-Rajupur, Ghiria; and Vingurla. The Portugueze have loſt ſeveral valuable poſſeſſions on this coaſt, and thoſe which remain are on the decline.

Among the iſlands lying upon the ſame coaſt is that of Bombay, belonging to the Engliſh Eaſt-India company. Its harbour can conveniently hold 1000 ſhips at anchor. The iſland itſelf is about ſeven miles in length, and twenty in circumference, but its ſituation and harbour are its chief re-

commendations, being deſtitute of almoſt all the conveniencies of life. The town is about a mile long, and poorly built, and the climate was fatal to Engliſh conſtitutions, till experience, caution and temperance, taught them preſervatives againſt its unwholeſomeneſs. The beſt water there is preſerved in tanks, which receive it in the rainy ſeaſons. The fort is a regular quadrangle, and well built of ſtone. Many black merchants reſide here. This iſland was part of the portion paid with the infanta of Portugal, to Charles II. who gave it to the Eaſt-India company, and the iſland is ſtill divided into three Roman-catholic pariſhes, inhabited by Portugueze, and what are called popiſh Meſtizos and Canarins, the former being a mixed breed of the natives and Portugueze, and the other the aborigines of the country. The Engliſh have fallen upon methods to render this iſland and town, under all their diſadvantages, a ſafe, if not an agreeable reſidence. The reader need ſcarcely be informed, that the governor and council of Bombay, have lucrative poſts as well as the officers under them. The troops on the iſland, are commanded by Engliſh officers, and the natives, when formed into regular companies, and diſciplined, are here, and all over the Eaſt-Indies, called Seapoys. The inhabitants of the iſland amount to near 60,000 of different nations; each of whom enjoys the practice of his religion unmoleſted.

Near Bombay are ſeveral other iſlands, one of which, called Elephanta, contains the moſt inexplicable antiquity, perhaps in the world. A figure of an elephant of the natural ſize cut coarſely in ſtone, preſents itſelf on the landing place, near the bottom of a mountain. An eaſy ſlope then leads to a ſtupendous temple, hewn out of the ſolid rock, eighty or ninety feet long, and forty broad. The roof, which is cut flat, is ſupported by regular rows of pillars, about ten feet high, with capitals, reſembling round cuſhions, as if preſſed by the weight of the incumbent mountain. At the farther end, are three gigantic figures, which have been multiplied by the blind zeal of the Portugueze. Beſides the temple, are various images, and groupes on each hand cut in the ſtone; one of the latter bearing a rude reſemblance of the judgment of Solomon; beſides a colonnade, with a door of regular architecture; but the whole bears no manner of reſemblance to any of the Gentoo works.

The iſland and city of Goa, the capital of the Portugueze ſettlements in the Eaſt-Indies, lies about thirty miles ſouth of Vingurla. The iſland is about twenty-ſeven miles in compaſs. It has one of the fineſt and beſt fortified ports in the Indies. This was formerly a moſt ſuperb ſettlement, and

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was ſurpaſſed either in bulk or beauty by few of the European cities. It is ſaid that the revenues of the Jeſuits upon this iſland, equalled thoſe of the crown of Portugal. Goa, as well as the reſt of the Portugueze poſſeſſions on this coaſt, are under a viceroy, who ſtill keeps up the remains of the antient ſplendor of the government. The rich peninſula of Salzete, is dependant on Goa. Sunda lies ſouth of the Portugueze territories, and is governed by a rajah, tributary to the mogul. The Engliſh factory of Corwar, is one of the moſt pleaſant and healthful of any upon the Malabar coaſt. Kanora lies about forty miles to the ſouth of Goa, and reaches to Calicut. Its ſoil is famous for producing rice, that ſupplies many parts of Europe, and ſome of the Indies. The Kanorines are ſaid generally to be governed by a lady, whoſe ſon has the title of rajah, and her ſubjects are accounted the braveſt and moſt civilized of any in that peninſula, and remarkably given to commerce.

Though Malabar gives name to the whole ſouth-weſt coaſt of the peninſula, yet it is confined at preſent to the country ſo called, lying on the weſt of cape Comorin, and called the Dominions of the Samorin. The Malabar language, however, is common in the Carnatic, and the country itſelf is rich and fertile, but peſtered with green adders, whoſe poiſon is incurable. It was formerly a large kingdom of itſelf. The moſt remarkable places in Malabar are Kannamore, containing a Dutch factory and fort; Tillicheri, where the Engliſh have a ſmall ſettlement, keeping a conſtant garriſon of thirty or forty ſoldiers. Calicut, where the French and Portugueze have ſmall factories, beſides various other diſtinct territories and cities. Cape Comorin, which is the ſouthermoſt part of this peninſula, though not above three leagues in extent, is famous for uniting in the ſame garden, the two ſeaſons of the year; the trees being loaded with bloſſoms and fruit on the one ſide, while on the other ſide they are ſtripped of all their leaves. This ſurprizing phenomenon is owing to the ridge of mountains ſo often mentioned, which traverſe the whole peninſula from ſouth to north. On the oppoſite ſides of the Cape, the winds are conſtantly at variance; blowing from the weſt on the weſt ſide, and from the eaſt on the eaſtern ſide.

Before I take my leave of India, it may be proper to obſerve, that in the little diſtrict of Cochin within Malabar, are to be found ſome thouſands of Jews, who pretend to be of the tribe of Manaſſeh, and to have records engraved on copper plates in Hebrew characters. They are ſaid to be ſo poor, that many of them embrace the Gentoo religion. The like diſ-

coveries of the Jews and their records have been made in China, and other places of Aſia, which have occaſioned various ſpeculations among the learned.

PERSIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 1300	between	44 and 70 eaſt longitude.
Breadth 1100		25 and 44 north latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] MODERN Perſia is bounded by the mountains of Ararat, or Daghiſtan, which divide it from Circaſſian Tartary, on the north-weſt; by the Caſpian ſea, which divides it from Ruſſia, on the north; by the river Oxus, which divides it from Uſbec Tartary, on the north-eaſt; by India on the eaſt, and by the Indian ocean, and the gulphs of Perſia and Ormus, on the ſouth; and by Arabia and Turkey on the weſt.

Modern Perſia comprehends the ancient Hyrcania, Bactria, Suſiana, Parthia, Media, and part of Aſſyria, Iberia, and Colchis. The modern diviſions of Perſia are extremely uncertain, and of little importance to the reader.

NAME.] Perſia, according to the poets, derived its name from Perſius, the ſon of Jupiter and Danae. Leſs fabulous authors, ſuppoſe it derived from Paras, which ſignifies a horſeman, the Perſians or Parthians, being always celebrated for their ſkill in horſemanſhip.

AIR.] In ſo extenſive an empire this is very different. Thoſe parts which border upon Caucaſus and Daghiſtan, and the mountains near the Caſpian ſea, are cold, as lying in the neighbourhood of thoſe mountains which are commonly covered with ſnow. The air in the midland provinces of Perſia is ſerene, pure, and exhilarating, but in the ſouthern provinces it is hot, and ſometimes communicates noxious blaſts to the midland parts, which are ſo often mortal, that the inhabitants fortify their heads with very thick turbans.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.] Thoſe vary like the air. The ſoil is far from being luxuriant towards Tartary, and the Caſpian ſea, but with cultivation it might produce abundance of corn and fruits. South of mount Taurus, the fertility of the country in corn, fruits, wine, and the other luxuries of life, are equalled by few countries. It produces wine and oil in plenty, ſenna, rhubarb, and the fineſt of drugs. The fruits

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are delicious, especially their dates, oranges, pistachio-nuts, melons, cucumbers, and garden stuff, not to mention vast quantities of excellent silk; and the gulph of Bassora, formerly furnished great part of Europe and Asia with very fine pearls. Some parts near Ispahan especially produce almost all the flowers that are valued in Europe; and from some of them, the roses especially, they extract waters of a salubrious and odorific kind, which form a gainful commodity in trade. In short, the fruits, vegetables, and flowers of Persia, are of a most exalted flavour; and had the natives the art of horticulture, to as great perfection as some nations in Europe, by transplanting, engrafting, and other meliorations, they would add greatly to the natural riches of the country. The Persian assa fœtida flows from a plant called Hiltot, and turns into a gum. Some of it is white, and some black; but the former is so much valued, that the natives make very rich sauces of it, and sometimes eat it as a rarity.

MOUNTAINS.] These are Caucasus and Ararat, which are called the mountains of Dagnistan; and the vast collection of mountains called Taurus, and their divisions run through the middle of the country from Natolia to India.

RIVERS.] It has been observed, that no country, of so great an extent, has so few navigable rivers as Persia. The most considerable are those of the Kur, anciently Cyrus; and Aras, anciently Araxes, which rise in or near the mountains of Ararat, and joining their streams, fall into the Caspian sea. Some small rivulets falling from the mountains, water the country, but their streams are so inconsiderable, that few or none of them can be navigated even by boats. The Oxus can scarcely be called a Persian river, though it divides Persia from Uibec Tartary. Persia has the river Indus on the east, and the Euphrates and Tigris on the west.

WATER.] The scarcity of rivers in Persia, is joined to a scarcity of water; but the defect, where it prevails, is admirably well supplied by means of reservoirs, aqueducts, canals, and other ingenious methods.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Persia contains mines of iron, copper, lead, and above all, turquoise stones, which are found in Chorasan. Sulphur, salt-petre, and antimony, are found in the mountains. Quarries of red, white, and black marble, have been discovered near Tauris, and natural salt in the province of Carkmenia.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] It is impossible to speak with any certainty concerning the population of a country so little known as that of Persia. If we are to judge

by the vaſt armies in modern as well as in ancient times, raiſed there, the numbers it contains muſt be very great. The Perſians of both ſexes are generally handſome, the men being fond of Georgian and Circaſſian women. Their complexions towards the ſouth, are ſomewhat ſwarthy. The men ſhave their heads, but the young men ſuffer a lock of hair to grow on each ſide, and the beard of their chin to reach up to their temples; but religious people wear long beards. Men of rank and quality wear very magnificent turbans, many of them coſt twenty-five pounds, and few under nine or ten. They have a maxim to keep their heads very warm, ſo that they never pull off their caps or their turbans out of reſpect, even to the king. Their dreſs is very ſimple. Next to their ſkin they wear callico ſhirts, over them a veſt, which reaches below the knee, girt with a ſaſh, and over that a looſe garment ſomewhat ſhorter. The materials of their cloaths, however, are commonly very expenſive, conſiſting of the richeſt furs, ſilks, muſlin, cottons, and the like valuable ſtuffs, richly embroidered with gold and ſilver. They wear a kind of looſe boots on their legs, and ſlippers on their feet. They are fond of riding, and very expenſive in their equipages. They wear at all times a dagger in their ſaſh, and linen trowzers. The collars of their ſhirts and cloaths are open, ſo that their dreſs upon the whole is far better adapted for the purpoſes both of health and activity, than the long flowing robes of the Turks.

The dreſs of the women is not much different; their wear, as well as that of the men, is very coſtly, and they are at great pains to heighten their beauty by art, colours, and waſhes.

The Perſians accuſtom themſelves to frequent waſhings and ablutions, which are the more neceſſary, as they ſeldom change their linen. In the morning early they drink coffee, about eleven go to dinner, upon fruits, ſweetmeats, and milk. Their chief meal is at night, when they ſup upon pilau, already deſcribed. They are temperate, but uſe opium, though not in ſuch abundance as the Turks, nor are they very delicate in their entertainments of eating and drinking. They are great maſters of ceremony towards their ſuperiors, and ſo polite, that they accommodate Europeans who viſit them with ſtools, that they may not be forced to ſit croſs-legged. They are ſo immoderately fond of tobacco, which they ſmoke through a tube fixed in water, ſo as to be cool in the mouth, that when it has been prohibited by their princes, they have been known to leave their country, rather than be debarred from that enjoyment. The Perſians are naturally fond of poetry, moral ſentences, and hyperbole. Their long wars, and their national revolutions, have mingled

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the native Perſians with barbarous nations, and are ſaid to have taught them diſſimulation; but they are ſtill pleaſing and plauſible in their behaviour, and in all ages they have been remarkable for hoſpitality.

The Perſians write like the Hebrews, from the right to the left, and are neat in their ſeals and materials for writing, and are wonderfully expeditious in the art. The number of people employed on their manuſcripts (for no printing is allowed there) is incredible. Their great foible ſeems to be oſtentation in their equipages and dreſſes; nor are they leſs jealous of their women than the Turks, and other eaſtern nations. They are fond of muſic, and take a pleaſure in converſing in large companies; but their chief diverſions are thoſe of the field, hunting, hawking, horſemanſhip, and the exerciſe of arms, in all which they are very dexterous. They excel, as their anceſtors the Parthians did, in archery. They are fond of rope-dancers, jugglers, and fighting of wild beaſts, and privately play at games of chance.

Men may marry for life, or for any determined time, in Perſia, as well as through all Tartary; and travellers or merchants, who intend to ſtay ſome time in any city, commonly apply to the cadee, or judge, for a wife during the time he propoſes to ſtay. The cadee, for a ſtated gratuity, produces a number of girls, whom he declares to be honeſt, and free from diſeaſes, and he becomes ſurety for them. A gentleman who lately attended the Ruſſian embaſſy to Perſia declares, that amongſt thouſands, there has not been one inſtance of their diſhoneſty, during the time agreed upon.

RELIGION.] The Perſians are Mahometans of the ſect of Ali, for which reaſon the Turks, who follow the ſucceſſion of Omar and Abu Bekr, call them heretics. Their religion is, if poſſible, in ſome things more fantaſtical and ſenſual than that of the Turks, but in many points it is mingled with ſome bramin ſuperſtitions. When they are taxed by the Chriſtians with drinking ſtrong liquors, as many of them do, they anſwer very ſenſibly, "You Chriſtians whore and get drunk, though "you know you are committing ſins, which is the very caſe "with us." To enumerate their ſuperſtitions, faſts, and ceremonies, would require a volume, which, when read, could communicate neither inſtruction nor entertainment. Having mentioned the bramins, the compariſon between them and the Perſian guebres or gaurs, who pretend to be the diſciples and ſucceſſors of the antient magi, the followers of Zoroaſter, may be highly worth a learned diſquiſition: that both of them held originally pure and ſimple ideas of a ſupreme Being, may be eaſily proved, but the Indian bramins and

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parſes accuſe the gaurs, who ſtill worſhip the fire, of having ſenſualized thoſe ideas, and of introducing an evil principle into the government of the world. A combuſtible ground, about ten miles diſtant from Baku, a city in the north of Perſia, is the ſcene of the guebres devotions. It muſt be admitted, that this ground is impregnated with very ſurpriſing inflammatory qualities, and contains ſeveral old little temples, in one of which the guebres pretend to preſerve the ſacred flame of the univerſal fire, which riſes from the end, and a large hollow cane ſtuck into the ground, reſembling a lamp burning, with very pure ſpirits. The Mahometans are the declared enemies of the gaurs, who were baniſhed ou of Perſia, by Shah Abbas. Their ſect, however, is ſaid to be numerous, though tolerated in very few places.

The long wars between the Perſians and the Romans, ſeem early to have driven the antient Chriſtians into Perſia, and the neighbouring countries. Even to this day, many ſects are found, that evidently have Chriſtianity for the ground-work of their religion. Some of them called ſoufiees, who are a kind of quietiſts, ſacrifice their paſſions to God, and profeſs the moral duties. The Sabean Chriſtians have, in their religion, a mixture of Judaiſm and Mahometaniſm, and are numerous towards the Perſian Gulph. I have already mentioned the Armenian and Georgian Chriſtians, who are very numerous in Perſia.

I have been the more explicit on the head of religion, as the preſent race of Perſians are ſaid to be very cool in the doctrines of Mahomet, owing chiefly to their ignorance of all religion, and their late wars with the Turks. It has therefore been thought by ſome writers, that great advantages, in point of commerce, may be derived from this indifference in matters of religion, if the natives ſhould be properly ſupported by the Chriſtian powers.

LANGUAGE.] It has been diſputed among the learned, whether the Arabs had not their language from the Perſians; but this chiefly reſts on the great intermixture of Arabic words in the Perſian language, and the deciſion ſeems to be in favour of the Arabs. The common people, eſpecially towards the ſouthern coaſts of the Caſpian ſea, ſpeak Turkiſh, and the Arabic probably was introduced into Perſia, under the califate, when learning flouriſhed in thoſe countries. The learned Perſians have generally written in the Arabic, and people of quality among them have adopted it as the modiſh language, as we do the French. The pure Perſic is ſaid to be ſpoken in the ſouthern parts, on the coaſt of the Perſian gulph, and in Iſpahan, but many of the provinces ſpeak a barbarous mixture

ture of the Turkiſh, Ruſſian, and other languages. Their Pater-Noſter is of the following tenour: *Ei Padere ma kih der oſmoni; pak baſched mâm tu; bayayed padſchahi tu; ſehwad chwáaſte tu henzjunáaukih der oſmon níz derzemín; béh mára jmrouz nân keſâf rouz mara; wadargudſar mara konáhan ma zjunankihma niz mig ſarim ormân mara; wador ozmajiſch minedázzmara; likin chalás kun mara ez eſcherir.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Perſians, in antient times, were famous for both, and their poets renowned all over the eaſt. At preſent their learning is merely mechanical, nor do they even underſtand the Koran, which they read in Arabic. Their boaſted ſkill in aſtronomy is now reduced to a mere ſmattering in that ſcience, and terminates in judicial aſtrology; ſo that no people in the world are more ſuperſtitious than the Perſians. The learned profeſſion in greateſt eſteem among them is that of medicine, which is at perpetual variance with aſtrology, becauſe every doſe muſt be adminiſtered in the lucky hour fixed by the aſtrologer, which often defeats the ends of the preſcription. It is ſaid, however, that the Perſian phyſicians are acute and ſagacious. Their drugs are excellent, and they are no ſtrangers to the practices of Galen and Avicenna. Add to this, that the plague is but little known in this country, as equally rare are many other diſeaſes that are fatal in other places, ſuch as the gout, the ſtone, the head-ach, the tooth-ach, the ſmall-pox, conſumptions, and apoplexies. The Perſian practice of phyſic is therefore pretty much circumſcribed, ſo that they are very ignorant in ſurgery, which is exerciſed by barbers, whoſe chief knowledge of it is in letting blood, for they truſt the healing of green wounds to the excellency of the air, and the good habit of the patient's body.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] The monuments of antiquity in Perſia, are more celebrated for their magnificence and expence, than their beauty or taſte. No more than nineteen columns which formerly belonged to the famous palace of Perſepolis, are now remaining. Each is about fifteen feet high, and compoſed of excellent Parian marble. The ruins of other antient buildings are found in many parts of Perſia, but void of that elegance and beauty, that is diſplayed in the Greek architecture. The tombs of the kings of Perſia are ſtupendous works, being cut out of a rock, and highly ornamented with ſculptures. The chief of the modern edifices is a pillar to be ſeen at Iſpahan, ſixty feet high, conſiſting of the ſkulls of beaſts, erected by Shah Abbas, after the ſuppreſſion of a rebellion. Abbas had vowed to erect ſuch a column of human ſkulls, but upon the ſubmiſſion

ſubmiſſion of the rebels, he performed his vow by ſubſtituting thoſe of brutes, each of the rebels furniſhing one.

The baths near Gombroon, work ſuch cures, that they are eſteemed among the natural curioſities of Perſia. The ſprings of the famous Naphtha, near Baku, are mentioned often in natural hiſtory for their ſurprizing qualities; but the chief of the natural curioſities in this country, is the burning phænomenon, and its inflammatory neighbourhood, already mentioned under the article of Religion.

HOUSES, CITIES, AND PUBLIC EDIFICES. The houſes of men of quality in Perſia, are in the ſame taſte with thoſe of the Aſiatic Turks already deſcribed. They are ſeldom above one ſtory high, built of bricks, with flat roofs for walking on, and thick walls. The hall is arched, the doors are clumſey and narrow, and the rooms have no communication but with the hall; the kitchens and office-houſes being built apart. Few of them have chimnies, but a round hole in the middle of the room. Their furniture chiefly conſiſts of carpets, and their beds are two thick cotton quilts, which ſerve them likewiſe as coverlits, with carpets under them.

Iſpahan or Spahawn, the capital of Perſia, is ſeated on a fine plain, within a mile of the river Zenderhend, which ſupplies it with water. It is ſaid to be twelve miles in circumference. The ſtreets are narrow and crooked, and the chief amuſement of the inhabitants is on the flat roofs of their houſes, where they ſpend their ſummer evenings, and different families aſſociate together. The royal ſquare is a third of a mile in length, and about half as much in breadth, and we are told, that the royal palace, with the buildings and gardens belonging to it, is three miles in circumference. There are in Iſpahan 160 moſques, 1800 caravanſeras, 260 public baths, a prodigious number of fine ſquares, ſtreets, and palaces, in which are canals, and trees planted to ſhade and better accommodate the people. This capital is ſaid formerly to have contained 650,000 inhabitants; but was often depopulated by Kouli Khan during his wars, ſo that we may eaſily ſuppoſe, that it has loſt great part of its antient magnificence. In 1744, when Mr. Hanway was there, it was thought that not above 5000 of its houſes were inhabited.

Schiras lies about 200 miles to the ſouth of Aſtracan. It is an open town, but its neighbourhood is inexpreſſibly rich and beautiful, being laid out for many miles in gardens, the flowers, fruits, and wines of which are incomparable. The vines of Schiras are reckoned the beſt of any in Perſia. This town is the capital of Fars, the antient Perſia, and contains a kind of a college for the ſtudy of eaſtern learning. It contains an uncommon number of moſques, is adorned by many noble buildings,

buildings, but its ſtreets are narrow and inconvenient, and not above 4000 of its houſes are inhabited.

The cities of Ormus and Gombroon, on the narrow part of the Perſian Gulph, were formerly places of great commerce and importance. The Engliſh, and other Europeans, have factories at Gombroon, where they trade with the Perſians, Arabians, Banyans, Armenians, Turks, and Tartars, who come hither with the caravans which ſet out from various inland cities of Aſia, under the convoy of guards.

MOSQUES AND BAGNIOS.] I thought proper to place them here under a general head, as their form of building is pretty much the ſame all over the Mahometan countries.

Moſques are religious buildings, ſquare, and generally of ſtone; before the chief gate there is a ſquare court, paved with white marble, and low galleries round it, whoſe roof is ſupported by marble pillars. Thoſe galleries ſerve for places of ablution before the Mahometans go into the moſque. About every moſque there are ſix high towers, called minarets, each of which has three little open galleries, one above another. Theſe towers, as well as the moſques, are covered with lead, and adorned with gilding and other ornaments; and from thence, inſtead of a bell, the people are called to prayer by certain officers appointed for that purpoſe. No woman is allowed to enter the moſque, nor can a man with his ſhoes or ſtockings on. Near moſt moſques is a place of entertainment for ſtrangers during three days, and the tomb of the founder, with conveniencies for reading the Koran, and praying for the ſouls of the deceaſed.

The bagnios in the Mahometan countries are wonderfully well conſtructed for the purpoſe of bathing. Sometimes they are ſquare, but oftener circular, built of white well poliſhed ſtone or marble. Each bagnio contains three rooms; the firſt for dreſſing and undreſſing; the ſecond contains the water, and the third the bath; all of them paved with black and white marble. The operation of the bath is very curious, but wholeſome; though to thoſe not accuſtomed to it, it is painful. The waiter rubs the patient with great vigour, then handles and ſtretches his limbs as if he was diſlocating every bone in the body; all which exerciſes are, in thoſe inert warm countries, very conducive to health. In public bagnios, the men bathe from morning to four in the afternoon, when all male attendants being removed, the ladies ſucceed, and when coming out of the bath diſplay their fineſt cloaths.

I might here attempt to deſcribe the eaſtern ſeraglios or harams, the womens apartments; but from the moſt credible accounts, they are contrived according to the taſte and conveniency of the owner, and divided into a certain number of apartments,

apartments, which are ſeldom or never entered by ſtrangers; and there is no country where women are ſo ſtrictly guarded and confined as among the great men in Perſia.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The Perſians equal, if not exceed, all the manufacturers in the world in ſilk, woollen, mohair, carpets, and leather. Their works in theſe, join fancy, taſte and elegance, to richneſs, neatneſs, and ſhew, and yet they are ignorant of painting, and their drawings are very rude. Their dying excels that of Europe. Their ſilver and gold laces, and threads, are admirable for preſerving their luſtre. Their embroideries and horſe furniture are not to be equalled, nor are they ignorant of the pottery, and window glaſs manufactures. On the other hand, their carpenters are very indifferent artiſts, which is ſaid to be owing to the ſcarcity of timber all over Perſia. Their jewellers and goldſmiths are clumſey workmen, and they are ignorant of lock-making, and the manufacture of looking-glaſſes. Upon the whole, they lie under inexpreſſible diſadvantages from the form of their government, which renders them ſlaves to their kings, who often engroſs either their labour or their profits.

The trade of the Perſians, who have little or no ſhipping of their own, is carried on in foreign bottoms. That between the Engliſh and other nations, by the gulph of Ormus at Gombroon, was the moſt gainful they had, but the perpetual wars they have been engaged in, have ruined their commerce. The great ſcheme of the Engliſh in trading with the Perſians through Ruſſia, promiſed vaſt advantages to both nations, but it has hitherto anſwered the expectations of neither. Perhaps the court of Peterſburgh is not fond of ſuffering the Engliſh to eſtabliſh themſelves upon the Caſpian ſea, the navigation of which is now poſſeſſed by the Ruſſians; but nothing can be ſaid with certainty on that head, till the government of Perſia is in a more ſettled condition than it is at preſent.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Both theſe are extremely precarious, as reſting in the breaſt of a deſpotic and often capricious monarch. The Perſians however had ſome fundamental rules of government. They excluded from their throne females, but not their male progeny. Blindneſs likewiſe was a diſqualification for the royal ſucceſſion. In other reſpects the king's will was a law for the people. The inſtances that have been given of the cruelties and inhumanities practiſed by the Mahometan kings of Perſia, are almoſt incredible, eſpecially during the two laſt centuries. The reaſon given to the Chriſtian ambaſſadors, by Shah Abbas, the greateſt and moſt polite among them, was, that the Perſians were ſuch

ſuch brutes, and ſo inſenſible by nature, that they could not be governed, without the exerciſe of exemplary cruelties. The favourites of the prince, female, as well as male, are his only counſellors, and the ſmalleſt diſobedience to their will, is attended with immediate death. The Perſians have no degrees of nobility, ſo that the reſpect due to every man, on account of his high ſtation, expires with himſelf. The king has been known to prefer a younger ſon to his throne, by putting out the eyes of the elder brother.

REVENUES.] The crown claims one-third of the cattle, corn and fruits of his ſubjects, and likewiſe a third of ſilk and cotton. No rank, or condition of Perſians, is exempted from ſevere taxations and ſervices. The governors of provinces have particular lands aſſigned to them for maintaining their retinues and troops, and the crown lands defray the expences of the court, king's houſhold, and great officers of ſtate; after ſaying thus much, the reader cannot doubt that the revenues of the Perſian kings, or as they are called Sophis, were prodigious, but nothing can be ſaid with any certainty in the preſent diſtracted ſtate of that country. Even the water that is let into fields and gardens is ſubject to a tax, and foreigners, who are not Mahometans, pay each a ducat a head.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] This conſiſted formerly of cavalry, and it is now thought to exceed that of the Turks. Since the beginning of this century, however, their kings have raiſed bodies of infantry. The regular troops of both brought to the field, even under Kouli Khan, did not exceed 60,000; but according to the modern hiſtories of Perſia, they are eaſily recruited in caſe of a defeat. The Perſians have few fortified towns; nor had they any ſhips of war, until Kouli Khan built a royal navy, but ſince his death we hear no more of their fleet.

ARMS AND TITLES.] The arms of the Perſian monarch are a lion couchant looking at the riſing ſun. His title is Shah, or the Diſpoſer of Kingdoms. Shah or Khan, and Sultan, which he aſſumes likewiſe, are Tartar titles. To acts of ſtate the Perſian monarch does not ſubſcribe his name, but the grant runs in this manner, viz. This act is given by him whom the univerſe obeys.

HISTORY.] All ancient hiſtorians mention the Perſian monarchs and their grandeur, and no empire has undergone a greater variety of governments. It is here ſufficient to ſay, that the Perſian empire ſucceeded the Aſſyrian or Babylonian, and that Cyrus laid its foundation about 556 years before Chriſt; and reſtored the Iſraelites, who had been captive at Babylon,

Babylon, to liberty. It ended in the perſon of Darius, who was conquered by Alexander 329 years before Chriſt. When Alexander's empire was divided among his great general officers, their poſterity were conquered by the Romans. Theſe laſt, however, never fully ſubdued Perſia, and the natives had princes of their own, who more than once defeated the Roman legions. The ſucceſſors of thoſe princes ſurvived the Roman empire itſelf, but were ſubdued by the famous Tamerlane, whoſe poſterity were ſupplanted by a doctor of law, the anceſtor of the Sophi family, and pretended to be deſcended from Mahomet himſelf. His ſucceſſors, though ſome of them were valiant and politic, proved in general to be a diſgrace to humanity, by their cruelty, ignorance, and indolence, which brought them into ſuch diſrepute with their ſubjects, barbarous as they were, that Haſſein, a prince of the Sophi race, who ſucceeded in 1694, was murdered by Mahmud, ſon and ſucceſſor to the famous Miriweis; as Mahmud himſelf was by Eſref, one of his general officers, who uſurped the throne. Prince Tahmas, the repreſentative of the Sophi family, had eſcaped from the rebels, and aſſembling an army, took into his ſervice Nadir Shah, who defeated and killed Eſref, and re-annexed to the Perſian monarchy all the places diſmembered from it by the Turks and Tartars during the late rebellions. At laſt the ſecret ambition of Nadir broke out, and after aſſuming the name of Tahmas Kouli Khan, and pretending that his ſervices were not ſufficiently rewarded, he rebelled againſt his ſovereign, made him a priſoner, and, it is ſuppoſed, put him to death.

This uſurper afterwards mounted the throne, under the title of Shah Nadir. The hiſtory of his expedition into Indoſtan, and the amazing booty he made there, has been treated of in the deſcription of that country. It has been remarked, that he brought back an inconſiderable part of his booty from India, loſing great part of it upon his return by the Marattas and accidents. He next conquered Uſbec Tartary; but was not ſo ſucceſsful againſt the Dagheſtan Tartars, whoſe country he found to be inacceſſible. He beat the Turks in ſeveral engagements, but was unable to take Bagdad. The great principle of his government was to ſtrike terror into all his ſubjects by the moſt cruel executions. His conduct became ſo intolerable, that it was thought his brain was touched; and he was aſſaſſinated in his own tent, partly in ſelf-defence, by his chief officers and his relations, in the year 1747. Many pretenders, upon his death, ſtarted up; but the fortunate candidate was Kerim Khan, who was crowned at Tauris in 1763, and, according to the lateſt accounts, ſtill keeps poſſeſſion of the throne.

ARABIA.

Situation and extent.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	1300	between	35 and 60 east longitude.
Breadth	1200		12 and 30 north latitude.

Boundaries.] Bounded by Turkey, on the north; by the gulphs of Persia or Bassora, and Ormus, which separate it from Persia, on the east; by the Indian Ocean, south; and the Red Sea, which divides it from Africa, on the west.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
1. Arabia Petræa, N. W.	— — —	Suez, E. lon. 33-27. N. lat. 29-50.
2. Arabia Deserta, in the middle.	Haggiaz or Mecca	Mecca, E. lon. 43-40. N. lat. 21-20.
		Siden
		Medina
	Tehama — —	Dhafar
3. Arabia Felix, S. E.	Mocho — —	Mocho, E. lon. 44-4. N. lat. 13-45.
		Sibit
	Hadramut — —	Hadramut
	Casseen — —	Casseen
	Segur — — —	Segur
	Oman or Muscat—	Muscat
	Jamama — —	Jamama
	Bahara — —	Elcalf.

Name.] It is remarkable that this country has always preserved its antient name. The word *Arab*, it is generally said, signifies a robber, or freebooter. The word *Saracen*, by which one tribe is called, is said to signify both a thief and an inhabitant of the Desert. These names justly belong to the Arabians, for they seldom let any merchandize pass thro' the country without extorting something from the owners, if they do not rob them.

Mountains.] The mountains of Sinai and Horeb, lying in Arabia Petræa, east of the Red-Sea, and those called Gabel el Ared, in Arabia Felix, are the most noted.

Rivers, seas, gulphs, and capes.] There are few fountains, springs, or rivers in this country, except the Euphrates, which washes the north-east limits of it. It is almost surrounded with seas; as the Indian Ocean, the Red-Sea, the gulphs of Persia and Ormus. The chief capes or promontories are those of Rosalgate and Musledon.

CLIMATE, AIR, SOIL, and PRODUCE.] As a conſiderable part of this country lies under the Torrid Zone, and the Tropic of Cancer paſſes over Arabia Felix, the air is exceſſive dry and hot, and the country is ſubject to hot poiſonous winds, like thoſe on the oppoſite ſhores of Perſia, which often prove fatal, eſpecially to ſtrangers. The ſoil, in ſome parts, is nothing more than immenſe ſands, which, when agitated by the winds, roll like the troubled ocean, and ſometimes form mountains, by which whole caravans have been buried or loſt. In theſe deſerts, the caravans, having no tracks, are guided, as at ſea, by a compaſs, or by the ſtars, for they travel chiefly in the night. Here, ſays Dr. Shaw, are no paſtures clothed with flocks, nor vallies ſtanding thick with corn; here are no vineyards or olive-yards; but the whole is a lonеſome deſolate wilderneſs, no other ways diverſified than by plains covered with ſand, and mountains that are made up of naked rocks and precipices. Neither is this country ever, unleſs ſometimes at the equinoxes, refreſhed with rain; and the intenſeneſs of the cold in the night is almoſt equal to that of the heat in the day-time. The ſouthern part of Arabia, deſervedly called the Happy, is bleſſed with an excellent ſoil, and, in general, is very fertile. There the cultivated lands, which are chiefly about the towns near the ſea coaſt, produce balm of Gilead, manna, myrrh, caſſia, aloes, frankincenſe, ſpikenard, and other valuable gums; cinnamon, pepper, cardamum, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, figs, and other fruits; honey and wax in plenty, with a ſmall quantity of corn and wine. But this country is moſt famous for its coffee and its dates, which laſt are found ſcarce any where in ſuch perfection as here and in Perſia. There are few trees fit for timber in Arabia, and little wood of any kind.

ANIMALS.] The moſt uſeful animals in Arabia are camels and dromedaries; they are amazingly fitted by providence for traverſing the dry and parched deſerts of this country, for they are ſo formed, that they can throw up the liquor from their ſtomach into their throat, by which means they can travel ſix or eight days without water. The camels uſually carry 800 weight upon their backs, which is not taken off during the whole journey, for they naturally kneel down to reſt, and in due time riſe with their load. The dromedary is a ſmall camel that will travel many miles a day. It is an obſervation among the Arabs, that wherever there are trees, the water is not far off; and when they draw near a pool, their camels will ſmell it at a diſtance, and ſet up their great trot till they come to it. The Arabian horſes are well known in Europe, and have contributed to improve the breed of thoſe

thoſe in England. They are only fit for the ſaddle, and are admired for their make as much as for their ſwiftneſs and high mettle.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DRESS.] The Arabians, like moſt of the nations of Aſia, are of a middle ſtature, thin, and of a ſwarthy complexion, with black hair and black eyes. They are ſwift of foot, excellent horſemen, and are ſaid to be a brave people, expert at the bow and lance, and, ſince they became acquainted with fire-arms, good markſmen. The inhabitants of the inland country live in tents, and remove from place to place with their flocks and herds, as they have ever done ſince they became a nation.

The Arabians in general are ſuch thieves by nature, that travellers and pilgrims, who are led thither from all nations thro' motives of devotion or curioſity, are ſtruck with terror on their approaches towards the Deſerts. Thoſe robbers, headed by a captain, traverſe the country in conſiderable troops on horſeback, aſſault and plunder the caravans; and we are told, that ſo late as the year 1750, a body of 50,000 Arabians attacked a caravan of merchants and pilgrims returning from Mecca, killed about 60,000 perſons, and plundered it of every thing valuable, though eſcorted by a Turkiſh army. On the ſea coaſt they are mere pirates, and make prize of every veſſel they can maſter of whatever nation.

The habit of the roving Arabs is a kind of blue ſhirt, tied about them with a white ſaſh or girdle; and ſome of them have a veſt of furs or ſheep-ſkins over it; they alſo wear drawers, and ſometimes ſlippers, but no ſtockings; and have a cap or turban on their head. Many of them go almoſt naked; but, as in the eaſtern countries, the women are ſo wrapped up, that nothing can be diſcerned but their eyes. Like other Mahometans, the Arabs eat all manner of fleſh, except that of hogs; and prefer the fleſh of camels, as we prefer veniſon, to other meat. They take care to drain the blood from the fleſh, as the Jews do, and like them refuſe ſuch fiſh as have no ſcales. Coffee and tea, water, and ſherbet made of oranges water and ſugar, is their uſual drink; they have no ſtrong liquors.

RELIGION.] Of this the reader will find an account in the following hiſtory of Mahomet their countryman. Many of the wild Arabs are ſtill pagans, but the people in general profeſs Mahometaniſm.

LEARNING AND LANGUAGE.] Though the Arabians in former ages were famous for their learning and ſkill in all the liberal arts, there is ſcarce a country at preſent where the people are ſo univerſally ignorant. The vulgar language

uſed in the three Arabias is the Arabeſk, or corrupt Arabian, which is likewiſe ſpoken, with ſome variation of dialect, over great part of the Eaſt, from Egypt to the court of the great mogul. The pure old grammatical Arabic, which is ſaid to be a dialect of the Hebrew, and by the people of the Eaſt accounted the richeſt, moſt energic and copious language in the world, is taught in their ſchools, as Greek and Latin is amongſt Europeans, and uſed by Mahometans in their worſhip; for as the Koran was written in this language, they will not ſuffer it to be read in any other: they look upon it to have been the language of Paradiſe, and think no man can be maſter of it without a miracle, as conſiſting of ſeveral millions of words. The books which treat of it ſay, they have no fewer than a thouſand terms to expreſs the word *camel*, and five hundred for that of a *lion*. The Pater-noſter in the Arabic is as follows.

Abuna elladhi fi-ſſamwat; jetkaddas eſmâc; tati malacutac: taouri maſchiatac, cama fi-ſſama; kedhalec ala lardh aating chobzena kefatna iaum beiaum; wagfor lena donubena, wachataina, cama nogfor nachna lemen aca doina; walâ tadalhchalna fihajarib; laken mejjina me nneſcherir. Amen.

CHIEF CITIES, CURIOSITIES, AND ARTS. What is called the Deſert of Sinai, is a beautiful plain near nine miles long and above three in breadth; it lies open to the north-eaſt, but to the ſouthward is cloſed by ſome of the lower eminences of Mount Sinai; and other parts of that mountain make ſuch encroachments upon the plain as to divide it in two, each ſo capacious as to be ſufficient to receive the whole camp of the Iſraelites.

From Mount Sinai may be ſeen Mount Horeb, where Moſes kept the flocks of Jethro, his father-in-law, when he ſaw the burning buſh. On thoſe mountains are many chapels and cells, poſſeſſed by the Greek and Latin monks, who, like the religious at Jeruſalem, pretend to ſhew the very ſpot where every miracle or tranſaction recorded in ſcripture happened.

The chief cities in Arabia are Mocho, Aden, Muſchat and Suez, where moſt of the trade of this country is carried on; but thoſe of Mecca, which is the capital of all Arabia, and Medina, deſerve particular notice. At Mecca, the birth-place of Mahomet, is a moſque ſo glorious that it is generally counted the moſt magnificent of any temple in the Turkiſh dominions: its lofty roof being raiſed in faſhion of a dome, and covered with gold, with two beautiful towers at the end, of extraordinary height and architecture, make a delightful appearance, and are conſpicuous at a great diſtance. The moſque

moſque hath a hundred gates, with a window over each; and the whole building within is decorated with the fineſt gildings and tapeſtry. The number of pilgrims who yearly viſit this place is almoſt incredible, every muſſulman being obliged by his religion to come hither once in his life time, or ſend a deputy.

At Medina, about fifty miles from the Red-Sea, the city to which Mahomet fled when he was driven out of Mecca, and the place where he was buried, is a ſtately moſque, ſupported by 400 pillars, and furniſhed with 300 ſilver lamps, which are continually burning. It is called the Moſt Holy by the Turks, becauſe in it is placed the coffin of their prophet Mahomet, covered with cloth of gold, under a canopy of ſilver tiſſue, which the baſhaw of Egypt, by order of the grand ſignior, renews every year. The camel which carries it derives a ſort of ſanctity from it, and is never to be uſed in any drudgery afterwards. Over the foot of the coffin is a rich golden creſcent, ſo curiouſly wrought, and adorned with precious ſtones, that it is eſteemed a maſter-piece of great value. Thither the pilgrims reſort, as to Mecca, but not in ſuch numbers.

GOVERNMENT.] The inland country of Arabia is under the government of many petty princes, who are ſtiled xerifs and imans, both of them including the offices of king and prieſt, in the ſame manner as the califs of the Saracens, the ſucceſſors of Mahomet. Theſe monarchs appear to be abſolute, both in ſpirituals and temporals; the ſucceſſion is hereditary, and they have no other laws than thoſe found in the Koran and the comments upon it. The northern Arabs owe ſubjection to the Turks, and are governed by baſhaws reſiding among them; but it is certain they receive large gratuities from the grand ſignior for protecting the pilgrims that paſs through their country from the robberies of their countrymen. The Arabians have no ſtanding regular militia, but the kings command both the perſons and the purſes of their ſubjects as the neceſſity of affairs require.

HISTORY.] The hiſtory of this country in ſome meaſure differs from that of all others: for as the ſlavery and ſubjection of other nations make a great part of their hiſtory, that of the Arabs is intirely compoſed of their conqueſts or independence. The Arabs are deſcended of Iſmael, of whoſe poſterity it was foretold, that they ſhould be invincible, "have their hands againſt every man, and every man's hands againſt theirs." They are at preſent, and have remained from the remoteſt ages, during the various conqueſts of the Greeks, Romans, and Tartars, a convincing proof of the divinity of this prediction.

Toward the north, and the ſea-coaſts of Arabia, indeed the inhabitants are kept in awe by the Turks; but the wandering tribes in the ſouthern and inland parts, acknowledge themſelves for ſubjects of no foreign power, and do not fail to harraſs and annoy all ſtrangers who come into their country. The conqueſts of the Arabs make as wonderful a part of their hiſtory, as the independence and freedom which they have ever continued to enjoy. Theſe, as well as their religion, began with one man, whoſe character forms a very ſingular phenomenon in the hiſtory of mankind. This was the famous Mahomet, a native of Mecca, a city of that diviſion of Arabia, which, for the luxuriancy of its ſoil, and happy temperature of its climate, has ever been eſteemed the loveliеſt and ſweeteſt region of the world, and is diſtinguiſhed by the epithet of Happy. He was born in the ſixth century, in the reign of Juſtinian XI. emperor of Conſtantinople. Though deſcended of mean parentage, illiterate and poor, Mahomet was endowed with a ſubtile genius, like thoſe of the ſame country, and poſſeſſed an enterprize and ambition peculiar to himſelf, and much beyond his condition. He had been employed, in the early part of his life, by an uncle, Abuteleb, as a factor, and had occaſion, in this capacity, to travel into Syria, Paleſtine, and Egypt. He was afterwards taken into the ſervice of a rich merchant, upon whoſe death he married his widow, Cadiga, and by her means came to be poſſeſſed of great wealth and of a numerous family. During his peregrinations into Egypt and the Eaſt, he had obſerved the vaſt variety of ſects in religion, whoſe hatred againſt each other was ſtrong and inveterate, while at the ſame time there were many particulars in which the greater part of them were agreed. He carefully laid hold of theſe particulars, by means of which, and by addreſſing himſelf to the love of power, riches, and pleaſure, paſſions univerſal among men, he expected to raiſe a new ſyſtem of religion, more general than any which hitherto had been eſtabliſhed. In this deſign he was aſſiſted by a Sergian monk, whoſe libertine diſpoſition had made him forſake his cloiſter and profeſſion, and engage in the ſervice of Cadiga, with whom he remained as a domeſtic when Mahomet was taken to her bed. This monk was perfectly qualified, by his great learning, for ſupplying the defects which his maſter, for want of a liberal education, laboured under, and which, in all probability, muſt have obſtructed the execution of his deſign. It was neceſſary, however, that the religion they propoſed to eſtabliſh ſhould have a divine ſanction; and for this purpoſe Mahomet turned a calamity, with which he was afflicted, to his advantage. He was often ſubject to fits of the epilepſy, a diſeaſe

diſeaſe which thoſe whom it afflicts are deſirous to conceal; Mahomet gave out therefore that theſe fits were trances, into which he was miraculouſly thrown by God Almighty, and during which he was inſtructed in his will, which he was commanded to publiſh to the world. By this ſtrange ſtory, and by leading a retired, abſtemious, and auſtere life, he eaſily acquired a character for ſuperior ſanctity among his acquaintance and neighbours. When he thought himſelf ſufficiently fortified by the numbers and enthuſiaſm of his followers, he boldly declared himſelf a prophet, ſent by God into the world, not only to teach his will, but to compel mankind to obey it. As we have already mentioned, he did not lay the foundation of his ſyſtem ſo narrow as only to comprehend the natives of his own country. His mind, though rude and enthuſiaſtic, was enlarged by travelling into diſtant lands, whoſe manners and religion he had made a peculiar ſtudy. He propoſed that the ſyſtem he eſtabliſhed ſhould extend over all the neighbouring nations, to whoſe doctrines and prejudices he had taken care to adapt it. The eaſtern countries were at this time ſtrongly infected with the hereſy of Arius, who allowed the prophetic office, but denied the divinity of Jeſus Chriſt. Egypt and Arabia were filled with Jews, who had fled into theſe corners of the world from the perſecution of the emperor Adrian, who threatened the total extinction of that people. The other inhabitants of theſe countries were pagans. Theſe, however, had little attachment to their decayed and derided idolatry; and like men whoſe religious principle is weak, had given themſelves over to pleaſure and ſenſuality, or to the acquiſition of riches, in order to be the better able to indulge in the gratification of ſenſe, which, together with the doctrine of predeſtination, compoſed the ſole principles of their religion and philoſophy. Mahomet's ſyſtem was exactly ſuited to theſe three kinds of men. To gratify the two former, he declared that there was one God, who created the world and governed all things in it; that he had ſent various prophets into the world to teach his will to mankind, among whom Moſes and Jeſus Chriſt were the moſt eminent; but the endeavours of theſe had proved ineffectual, and God had therefore now ſent his laſt and greateſt prophet, with a commiſſion more ample than what Moſes or Chriſt had been entruſted with. He had commanded him not only to publiſh his laws, but to ſubdue thoſe who were unwilling to believe or obey them; and for this end to eſtabliſh a kingdom upon earth which ſhould propagate the divine law throughout the world; that God had deſigned utter ruin and deſtruction to thoſe who ſhould refuſe to ſubmit to him; but to his faith-

ful followers, had given the ſpoils and poſſeſſions of all the earth, as a reward in this life, and had provided for them hereafter a paradiſe of all ſenſual enjoyments, eſpecially thoſe of love; that the pleaſures of ſuch as died in propagating the faith, would be peculiarly intenſe, and vaſtly tranſcend thoſe of the reſt. Theſe, together with the prohibition of drinking ſtrong liquors (a reſtraint not very ſevere in warm climates) and the doctrine of predeſtination, were the capital articles of Mahomet's creed. They were no ſooner publiſhed, than a vaſt many of his countrymen embraced them with implicit faith. They were written by the prieſt we formerly mentioned, and compoſe a book called the Koran, or Alkoran, by way of eminence, as we ſay the Bible, which means The Book. The perſon of Mahomet, however, was familiar to the inhabitants of Mecca; ſo that the greater part of them were ſufficiently convinced of the deceit. The more enlightened and leading men entered into a deſign to cut him off; but Mahomet getting notice of their intention, fled from his native city to Medina Talmachi, or the city of the Prophet. The fame of his miracles and doctrine was, according to cuſtom, greateſt at a diſtance, and the inhabitants of Medina received him with open arms. From this flight, which happened in the 622d year of Chriſt, the forty-fourth year of Mahomet's age, and the tenth of his miniſtry, his followers, the Mahometans, compute their time, and the æra is called in Arabic, Hegira, i. e. the Flight.

Mahomet, by the aſſiſtance of the inhabitants of Medina, and of others whom his inſinuation and addreſs daily attached to him, brought over all his countrymen to a belief, or at leaſt to an acquieſcence in his doctrines. The ſpeedy propagation of his ſyſtem among the Arabians was a new argument in its behalf among the inhabitants of Egypt and the Eaſt, who were previouſly diſpoſed to it. Arians, Jews, and Gentiles, all forſook their ancient faith, and became Mahometans. In a word, the contagion ſpread over Arabia, Syria, Egypt, and Perſia; and Mahomet, from a deceitful hypocrite, became the moſt powerful monarch in his time. He died in 629, leaving two branches of his race, both eſteemed divine among their ſubjects. Theſe were the caliphs of Perſia and of Egypt, under the laſt of which Arabia was included. The former of theſe turned their arms to the Eaſt, and made conqueſts of many countries. The caliphs of Egypt and Arabia directed their ravages towards Europe, and under the name of Saracens or Moors (which they obtained becauſe they entered Europe from Mauritania, in Africa, the country of the Moors) reduced moſt

moſt of Spain, France, Italy, and the iſlands in the Mediterranean.

In this manner did the ſucceſſors of that impoſtor ſpread their religion and conqueſts over the greateſt part of Aſia, Africa, and Europe; and they ſtill give law to a very conſiderable part of mankind.

The INDIAN and ORIENTAL ISLANDS are,

THE JAPAN ISLANDS, which together form what has been called the empire of Japan, and are governed by a moſt deſpotic prince, who is ſometimes called emperor and ſometimes king. They are ſituated about 150 miles eaſt of China, and extend from the 30th to the 41ſt degree of north latitude, and from the 130th to the 147th of eaſt longitude. The chief town is Jeddo, in the 141ſt degree of eaſt longitude, and the 36th of north latitude. The ſoil and productions of the country are pretty much the ſame with thoſe of China; and the inhabitants are famous for their lacquer ware, known by the name of Japan. The iſlands themſelves are very inacceſſible, through their high rocks and tempeſtuous ſeas; they are ſubject to earthquakes, and have ſome volcanos. I have already mentioned the circumſtance of the Dutch expelling the Portugueſe from this gainful trade. The Japaneſe themſelves are the groſſeſt of all idolators, and ſo irreconcileable to Chriſtianity, that it is commonly ſaid the Dutch, who are the only European people with whom they now trade, pretend themſelves to be no Chriſtians, and humour the Japaneſe in the moſt abſurd ſuperſtitions. Notwithſtanding all this compliance, the natives are very ſhy and rigorous in all their dealings with the Dutch, and Nanghazal, in the iſland of Ximo, is the only place where they are ſuffered to trade. Authors pretend to give us very particular accounts of the inhabitants, cuſtoms, and manners of thoſe iſlanders, their ſoil, commodities, and trade; but their information conveys little inſtruction, and the whole ſubſiſts on a precarious foundation. All we know for certain is, that notwithſtanding their ſuperſtition and ignorance, the natives are a moſt induſtrious penetrating people; that they excel the Chineſe themſelves in the manufactures that are common to both countries, and at leaſt equal them in huſbandry and the arts of life.

The LADRONE ISLANDS, of which the chief town is ſaid to be Guam, eaſt longitude 140, north latitude 14; they

they are about twelve in number. The people took their name from their pilfering qualities. We know nothing of them worth a particular mention, excepting that lord Anſon landed upon one of them (Tinian) where he found great refreſhment for himſelf and his crew.

FORMOSA is likewiſe an oriental iſland. It is ſituated to the eaſt of China, near the province of Fo-kien, and is divided into two parts by a chain of mountains, which runs through the middle, beginning at the ſouth coaſt, and ending at the north. This is a very fine iſland, and abounds with all the neceſſaries of life. That part of the iſland which lies to the weſt of the mountains belongs to the Chineſe, who conſider the inhabitants of its eaſtern part as ſavages, though they are ſaid to be a very inoffenſive people. The inhabitants of the cultivated parts are the ſame with the Chineſe already deſcribed. The Chineſe have likewiſe made themſelves maſters of ſeveral other iſlands in theſe ſeas, of which we ſcarcely know the names; that of Ainan, is between ſixty and ſeventy leagues long, and between fifty and ſixty in breadth, and but twelve miles from the province of Canton. The original inhabitants are a ſhy, cowardly people, and live in the moſt unwholeſome part of the iſland, the coaſt and cultivated parts, which are very valuable, being poſſeſſed by the Chineſe.

The PHILIPPINES, of which there are 1100 in number, lying in the Chineſe ſea, (part of the Pacific Ocean) 300 miles ſouth-eaſt of China, of which Manilla or Luconia, the chief, is 400 miles long and 200 broad. The inhabitants conſiſt of Chineſe, Ethiopians, Malays, Spaniards, Portugueſe, Pintudos, or painted people, and Meſtes, a mixture of all theſe. The property of the iſlands belong to the king of Spain, they having been diſcovered by Magellan, and afterwards conquered by the Spaniards in the reign of Philip II. from whom they take their name. Their ſituation is ſuch, between the eaſtern and weſtern continents, that the inhabitants trade with Mexico and Peru, as well as all the iſlands and places of the Eaſt-Indies. Two ſhips from Acapulco, in Mexico, carry on this commerce for the Spaniards, who make 400 per cent. profit. The country is fruitful in all the neceſſaries of life, and beautiful to the eye. Veniſon of all kinds, buffaloes, hogs, ſheep, goats, and a particular large ſpecies of monkeys, are found here in great plenty. The neſt of the bird ſaligan affords that diſſolving jelly which is ſo voluptuous a rarity at European tables. Many European fruits and flowers thrive ſurprizingly in thoſe iſlands. If a ſprig of an orange or lemon tree is planted there, it becomes within the year a fruit-

fruit-bearing tree; ſo that the verdure and luxuriancy of the ſoil is almoſt incredible. The tree amet ſupplies the natives with water; and there is alſo a kind of cane, which if cut yields fair water enough for a draught, of which there is plenty in the mountains, where water is moſt wanted.

The city of Manilla contains about 3000 inhabitants; its port is Cavite, lying at the diſtance of three leagues, and defended by the caſtle of St. Philip. In the year 1762, Manilla was reduced by the Engliſh under general Draper and admiral Corniſh, who took it by ſtorm, and humanely ſuffered the archbiſhop, who was the Spaniſh viceroy at the ſame time, to ranſom the place for about a million ſterling. The bargain, however, was ungenerouſly diſowned by him and the court of Spain, ſo that great part of the ranſom is ſtill unpaid. The Spaniſh government is ſettled there, but the Indian inhabitants pay a capitation tax. The other iſlands, particularly Mindanao, the largeſt next to Manilla, are governed by petty princes of their own, whom they call ſultans. The ſultan of Mindanao is a Mahometan.

Upon the whole, though theſe iſlands are enriched with all the profuſion of nature, yet they are ſubject to moſt dreadful earthquakes, thunder, rains, and lightning; and the ſoil is peſtered with many noxious and venemous creatures, and even herbs and flowers, whoſe poiſons kill almoſt inſtantaneouſly. Some of their mountains are volcanos.

The MOLUCCAS, commonly called the SPICE or CLOVE ISLANDS. Theſe are not out of ſight of each other, and lie all within the compaſs of twenty-five leagues to the ſouth of the Philippines, in 125 degrees of eaſt longitude, and between one degree ſouth, and two north latitude. They are in number five, viz. Bachian, Machian, Motyr, Ternate, and Tydore. Thoſe iſlands produce neither corn nor rice, ſo that the inhabitants live upon a bread made of ſagoe. Their chief produce conſiſts of cloves, mace, and nutmegs, in vaſt quantities, which are monopolized by the Dutch with ſo much jealouſy, that they deſtroy the plants leſt the natives ſhould ſell the ſupernumerary ſpices to other nations. Thoſe iſlands, after being ſubject to various powers, are now governed by three kings, ſubordinate to the Dutch. The latter, however, if at war with England, might be eaſily diſpoſſeſſed, and their poſſeſſion of them at this time is precarious, when they differ with thoſe princes. Ternate is the largeſt of thoſe iſlands, though no more than thirty miles in circumference. The Dutch have here a fort called Victoria, and another, called Fort Orange, in Machiam.

The

The BANDA, or NUTMEG ISLANDS, are ſituated between 127 and 128 degrees eaſt longitude, and between four and five ſouth latitude, comprehending the iſlands of Lantor, the chief town of which is Lantor, Poleron, Roſinging, Pooloway, and Gonapi. The chief forts belonging to the Dutch on thoſe iſlands, are thoſe of Revenge and Naſſau. The nutmeg, covered with the mace, grows on thoſe iſlands only, and they are entirely ſubject to the Dutch. In ſeveral iſlands that lie near Banda and Amboyna, the nutmeg and clove would grow, becauſe, as naturaliſts tell us, birds, eſpecially doves and pigeons, ſwallow the nutmeg and clove whole, and void them in the ſame ſtate; which is one of the reaſons why the Dutch declare war againſt both birds and their wild plantations. The great nutmeg harveſt is in June and Auguſt.

AMBOYNA. This iſland, taken in a large ſenſe, is one, and the moſt conſiderable, of the Moluccas, which, in fact, it commands. It is ſituated in the Archipelago of St. Lazarus, between the third and fourth degree of ſouth latitude, and 120 leagues to the eaſtward of Batavia. Amboyna is about ſeventy miles in circumference, and defended by a Dutch garriſon of 7 or 800 men, beſides ſmall forts, who protect their clove plantations. It is well known that when the Portugueſe were driven off this iſland, the trade of it was carried on by the Engliſh and Dutch; and the barbarities of the latter in firſt torturing and then murdering the Engliſh, and thereby engroſſing the whole trade, and that of Banda, can never be forgotten, for it muſt be tranſmitted as a memorial of Dutch infamy to all poſterity. This tragical event happened in 1622, and is ſtill unrevenged.

The iſland of CELEBES, or MACASSAR, is ſituated under the equator, between the iſland of Borneo and the Spice Iſlands, at the diſtance of 160 leagues from Batavia, and is 500 miles long, and 200 broad. This iſland, notwithſtanding its heat, is rendered habitable by breezes from the north, and periodical rains. Its chief product is pepper and opium; and the natives are expert in the ſtudy of poiſons, with a variety of which nature has furniſhed them. The Dutch have a fortification on this iſland, but the internal part of it is governed by three kings, the chief of whom reſides in the town of Macaſſar. In this, and indeed in almoſt all the Oriental iſlands, the inhabitants live in houſes built on large poſts, which are acceſſible only by ladders, which they pull up in the night-time, for their ſecurity againſt venemous animals. They are ſaid to be hoſpitable and faithful, if not provoked. They carry

carry on a large trade with the Chineſe; and if their chiefs were not perpetually at war with each other, they might eaſily drive the Dutch from their iſland. Their port of Jampoden is the moſt capacious of any in that part of the world.

The Dutch have likewiſe fortified GILOLO and CERAM, two other ſpice iſlands lying under the equator, and will ſink any ſhips that attempt to traffic in thoſe ſeas.

The SUNDA ISLANDS. Theſe are ſituated in the Indian Ocean, between 93 and 120 degrees of eaſt longitude, and between eight degrees north and eight degrees ſouth latitude, comprehending the iſlands of Borneo, Sumatra, Java, Bally, Lamboe, Banca, &c. The three firſt, from their great extent and importance, require to be ſeparately deſcribed.

BORNEO is ſaid to be 800 miles long and 700 broad, and is therefore thought to be the largeſt iſland in the world. The inland part of the country is marſhy and unhealthy, and the inhabitants live in towns built upon floats in the middle of the rivers. The ſoil produces rice, cotton, canes, pepper, camphire, the tropical fruits, gold, and excellent diamonds. The famous ourang-outang, one of which was diſſected by Dr. Tyſon at Oxford, is a native of this country, and is thought of all irrational beings, to reſemble a man the moſt. The original inhabitants are ſaid to live in the mountains, and make uſe of poiſoned darts, but the ſea coaſt is governed by Mahometan princes; the chief port of the iſland is Benjar-Maſſeen, and carries on a commerce with all trading nations.

SUMATRA has Malacca on the north, Borneo on the eaſt, and Java on the ſouth-eaſt, from which it is divided by the ſtraits of Sunda; it is divided into two equal parts by the equator, extending five degrees, and upwards, north-weſt of it, and five on the ſouth-eaſt; and is 1000 miles long, and 100 broad. This iſland produces ſo much gold, that it is thought to be the Ophir mentioned in the ſcriptures; but its chief trade with the Europeans lies in pepper. The Engliſh Eaſt-India company have two ſettlements here, Bencoolen and Fort-Marlborough, from whence they bring their chief cargoes of pepper. The king of Achen is the chief of the Mahometan princes who poſſeſs the ſea coaſts. The interior parts are governed by pagan princes; and the natural products of Sumatra are pretty much the ſame with thoſe of the adjacent iſlands.

The greateſt part of JAVA belongs to the Dutch, who have here erected a kind of commercial monarchy, the capital of which is Batavia, a noble and populous city, lying in the latitude

latitude of ſix degrees ſouth, at the mouth of the river Jucata, and furniſhed with one of the fineſt harbours in the world. The town itſelf is built in the manner of thoſe in Holland, and is about a league and a half in circumference, with five gates, and ſurrounded by regular fortifications; but its ſuburbs are ſaid to be ten times more populous than itſelf. The government here is a mixture of Eaſtern magnificence and European police, and held by the Dutch governor-general of the Indies. When he appears abroad, he is attended by his guards and officers, and with a ſplendor ſuperior to that of any European potentate, excepting upon ſolemn occaſions. The city is as beautiful as it is ſtrong, and its fine canals, bridges, and avenues, render it a moſt agreeable reſidence. The deſcription of it, its government, and public edifices, have employed whole volumes. The citadel, where the governor has his palace, commands the town and the ſuburbs, which are inhabited by natives of almoſt every nation in the world; the Chineſe reſiding in this iſland being computed at 100,000; but about 30,000 of that nation were barbarouſly maſſacred, without the ſmalleſt offence that ever was proved upon them, in 1740. This maſſacre was too unprovoked and deteſtable to be defended even by the Dutch, who, when the governor arrived in Europe, ſent him back to be tried at Batavia; but he never has been heard of ſince. A Dutch garriſon of three thouſand men conſtantly reſides at Batavia, and about 15,000 troops are quartered in the iſland and the neighbourhood of the cit . Their government is admirably well calculated to prevent the independency either of the civil or military power; and England itſelf would find it difficult to ſhake that republican empire.

The ANDAMAN and NICOBAR iſlands. Theſe iſlands lie at the entrance of the bay of Bengal, and furniſh proviſions, conſiſting of tropical fruits and other neceſſaries, for the ſhips that touch there. They are otherwiſe too inconſiderable to be mentioned. They are inhabited by a harmleſs, inoffenſive, but idolatrous people.

CEYLON. This iſland, tho' not the largeſt, is thought to be by nature the richeſt and fineſt iſland in the world. It is ſituated in the Indian Ocean, near cape Comorin, the ſouthern extremity of the Hither Peninſula of India, being ſeparated from the coaſt of Coromandel by a narrow ſtrait, and is 250 miles long and 200 broad. The natives call it, with ſome ſhew of reaſon, the terreſtrial paradiſe; and it produces, beſides excellent fruits of all kinds, long pepper, fine cotton, ivory, ſilk, tobacco, ebony, muſk, cryſtal, ſalt-petre, ſulphur, lead, iron, ſteel, copper, beſides

ſides cinnamon, gold, and ſilver, and all kinds of precious ſtones, except diamonds. All kinds of fowls and fiſh abound here. Every part of the iſland is well wooded and watered, and beſides ſome curious animals peculiar to itſelf, it has plenty of cows, buffaloes, goats, hogs, deer, hares, dogs, and other quadrupeds. The Ceylon elephant is preferred to all others, eſpecially if ſpotted; but ſeveral noxious animals, ſuch as ſerpents and ants, are likewiſe found here. The chief commodity of the iſland, however, is its cinnamon, which is by far the beſt in all Aſia. Though its trees grow in great profuſion, yet the beſt is found in the neighbourhood of Columbo, the chief ſettlement of the Dutch, and Negambo. The middle of the country is mountainous and woody, ſo that the rich and beautiful vallies are left in the poſſeſſion of the Dutch, who have in a manner ſhut up the king in his capital city, Candy, which ſtands on a mountain in the middle of the iſland, ſo that he has ſcarcely any communication with other nations, or any property in the riches of his own dominions. The deſcendants of the ancient inhabitants are called Cinglaſſes, who, though idolators, value themſelves upon maintaining their ancient laws and cuſtoms. They are in general a ſober inoffenſive people, and are mingled with Moors, Malabars, Portugueſe, and Dutch.

It may be here proper to obſerve, that the cinnamon-tree, which is a native of this iſland, has two, if not three barks, which form the true cinnamon; the trees of a middling growth and age afford the beſt; and the body of the tree, which when ſtripped is white, ſerves for building and other uſes. In 1656, the Dutch were invited by the natives of this delicious iſland, to defend them againſt the Portugueſe, whom they expelled, and have monopolized it ever ſince to themſelves.

The MALDIVES. Theſe are a vaſt cluſter of ſmall iſlands or little rocks juſt above the water, lying between the equator and eight degrees north latitude, near Cape Comorin. They are chiefly reſorted to by the Dutch, who drive on a profitable trade with the natives for couries, a kind of ſmall ſhells, which go, or rather formerly went for money upon the coaſts of Guinea and other parts of Africa. The cocoa of the Maldives is an excellent commodity in a medicinal capacity: "of this tree (ſays a well-informed author) they build veſſels "of twenty or thirty tons; their hulls, maſts, ſails, rigging, "anchors, cables, proviſions, and firing, are all from this "uſeful tree."

The other iſlands in Aſia, are thoſe of KAMTSCHATKA, and the KURILE ISLES in the eaſtern or Pacific

ocean, many of them lately diſcovered by the Ruſſians, and but little known. We have already mentioned BOMBAY on the Malabar coaſt, in ſpeaking of India.

With regard to the language of all the Oriental iſlands, nothing certain can be ſaid. Each iſland has a particular tongue; but the Malayan, Chineſe, Portugueſe, Dutch and Indian words are ſo frequent among them, that it is difficult for an European, who is not very expert in thoſe matters, to know the radical language. The ſame may be almoſt ſaid of their religion, for though its original is certainly Pagan, yet it is intermixed with many Mahometan, Jewiſh, Chriſtian, and other foreign ſuperſtitions.

AFRICA.

AFRICA, the third grand diviſion of the globe, is generally repreſented as bearing ſome reſemblance to the form of a pyramid, the baſe being the northern part of it, which runs along the ſhores of the Mediterranean, and the point or top of the pyramid, the cape of Good-Hope. Africa is a peninſula of a prodigious extent, joined to Aſia only by a neck of land, about ſixty miles over, between the Red-Sea and the Mediterranean, uſually called the Iſthmus of Suez, and its utmoſt length from north to ſouth, from cape Bona in the Mediterranean, in 37 deg. N. to the cape of Good-Hope in 34-7 ſouth lat. is 4300 miles; and the broadeſt part from cape Verd in 17-20 deg. to cape Guarda-fui near the ſtraits of Babel-Mandel in 51-20 E. lon. is 3500 miles from eaſt to weſt. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean ſea, which ſeparates it from Europe; on the eaſt by the Iſthmus of Suez, the Red-Sea, and the Indian ocean, which divides it from Aſia; on the ſouth by the ſouthern ocean; and on the weſt by the great Atlantic ocean, which ſeparates it from America. As the equator divides this extenſive country almoſt in the middle, and the far greateſt part of it is within the tropics, the heat is in many places almoſt inſupportable to an European; it being there greatly increaſed by the rays of the ſun from vaſt deſerts of burning ſands. The coaſts, however, and banks of rivers, ſuch as the Nile, are generally fertile; and moſt parts of this region are inhabited, though it is far from being ſo populous as Europe or Aſia. From what has been ſaid, the reader cannot expect to find here a variety of climates. In many parts of Africa, ſnow ſeldom falls in the plains: and it is generally never found, but on the tops of the higheſt mountains. The natives, in theſe ſcorching regions, would as ſoon expect that marble ſhould melt, and flow in liquid ſtreams, as that water by freezing ſhould loſe its fluidity, be arreſted by the cold, and ceaſing to flow become like the ſolid rock.

The moſt conſiderable rivers in Africa, are the Niger, which falls into the Atlantic or weſtern ocean at Senegal, after a courſe of 2800 miles. It increaſes and decreaſes as the Nile, fertiliſes the country, and has grains of gold in many parts of it. The Gambia and Senegal are only branches of this river. The Nile, which dividing Egypt into two parts, diſcharges itſelf into the Mediterranean, after a prodigious courſe from its ſource in Abyſſinia. The moſt conſiderable mountains in Africa, are the Atlas, a ridge extending from the weſtern ocean, to which it gives the name of Atlantic ocean, as far as Egypt

and had its name from a king of Mauritania, a great lover of aſtronomy, who uſed to obſerve the ſtars from its ſummit, on which account the poets repreſent him as bearing the heavens on his ſhoulders. The mountains of the Moon, extending themſelves between Abyſſinia and Monopotapa, and are ſtill higher than thoſe of Atlas. Thoſe of Sierra Leona, or the mountains of the Lions, which divide Nigritia from Guinea, and extend as far as Ethiopia. Theſe were ſtiled by the antients, the Mountains of God, on account of their being ſubject to thunder and lightning. The pike of Teneriffe, which the Dutch make their firſt meridian, is ſaid to be three miles high in the form of a ſugar-loaf, and is ſituated on an iſland of the ſame name near the coaſt. The moſt noted capes, or promontories, in this country, are Cape Verd, ſo called, becauſe the land is always covered with green trees, and moſſy ground. It is the moſt weſterly point of the continent of Africa. The cape of Good Hope, ſo denominated by the Portugueſe, when they firſt went round it in 1498, and diſcovered the paſſage to Aſia. It is the ſouth extremity of Africa, the country of the Hottentots; and at preſent in the poſſeſſion of the Dutch, and the general rendezvous of ſhips of every nation, who trade to India, being about half way from Europe. There is but one ſtreight in Africa, which is called Babel Mandel, and joins the Red-Sea with the Indian ocean.

The ſituation of Africa for commerce is extremely favourable, ſtanding as it were in the centre of the globe, and having thereby a much nearer communication with Europe, Aſia, and America, than any of the other quarters has with the reſt. That it abounds with gold, we have not only the teſtimony of the Portugueſe, the Dutch, the Engliſh, and the French, who have ſettlements on the coaſt of Africa, but that of the moſt authentic hiſtorians. It is however the misfortune of Africa, which, though it has 10,000 miles of ſea coaſt, with noble, large, deep rivers, penetrating into the very centre of the country, it ſhould have no navigation, nor receive any benefit from them; that it ſhould be inhabited by an innumerable people, ignorant of commerce, and of each other. At the mouths of theſe rivers are the moſt excellent harbours, deep, ſafe, calm and ſheltered from the wind, and capable of being made perfectly ſecure by fortifications; but quite deſtitute of ſhipping, trade, and merchants, even where there is plenty of merchandize. In ſhort, Africa, though a full quarter of the globe, ſtored with an inexhauſtible treaſure, and capable, under proper improvements, of producing ſo many things delightful, as well as convenient, within itſelf, ſeems to be almoſt entirely neglected, not only by the natives, who

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are quite unſollicitous of reaping the benefits which nature has provided for them, but alſo by the more civilized Europeans, who are ſettled in it, particularly the Portugueze.

Africa once contained ſeveral kingdoms and ſtates, eminent for the liberal arts, for wealth and power, and the moſt extenſive commerce. The kingdoms of Egypt and Ethiopia, in particular, were much celebrated; and the rich and powerful ſtate of Carthage, that once formidable rival to Rome itſelf, extended her commerce to every part of the then known world; even the Britiſh ſhores were viſited by her fleets, till Juba, who was king of Mauritania, but tributary to the republic of Carthage, unhappily called in the Romans, who, with the aſſiſtance of the Mauritanians, ſubdued Carthage, and by degrees, all the neighbouring kingdoms and ſtates. After this the natives, conſtantly plundered, and conſequently impoveriſhed, by the governors ſent from Rome, neglected their trade, and cultivated no more of their lands than might ſerve for their ſubſiſtence. Upon the decline of the Roman empire, in the fifth century, the north of Africa was over-run by the Vandals, who contributed ſtill more to the deſtruction of arts and ſciences; and, to add to this country's calamity, the Saracens made a ſudden conqueſt of all the coaſts of Egypt and Barbary, in the ſeventh century. Theſe were ſucceeded by the Turks, and both being of the Mahometan religion, whoſe profeſſors carried deſolation with them, wherever they came, the ruin of that once flouriſhing part of the world, was thereby compleated.

The inhabitants of this continent, with reſpect to religion, may be divided into three ſorts; namely, Pagans, Mahometans, and Chriſtians. The firſt are the moſt numerous, poſſeſſing the greateſt part of the country, from the tropic of Cancer, to the cape of Good-Hope, and theſe are generally black. The Mahometans, who are of a tawny complexion, poſſeſs Egypt, and almoſt all the northern ſhores of Africa, or what is called the Barbary coaſt. The people of Abyſſinia, or the Upper Ethiopia, are denominated Chriſtians, but retain many Pagan and Jewiſh rites. There are alſo ſome Jews, on the north of Africa, who manage all the little trade that part of the country is poſſeſſed of.

There are ſcarce any two nations, or indeed any two of the learned that agree in the modern diviſions of Africa; and for this very reaſon, that ſcarce any traveller has penetrated into the heart of the country, and conſequently we muſt acknowledge our ignorance of the bounds, and even the names of ſeveral of the inland nations, which may be ſtill reckoned among the unknown, and undiſcovered parts of the world, but according to the beſt accounts and conjectures, Africa may be divided according to the following table.

	Nations.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief cities.	Diſt. & bearing from London.	Diff. of time from London	Religions.
Barbary.	Morocco	500	480	Fez	1080 S.	0 24 aft.	Mahometans
	Algiers	480	100	Algiers	920 S.	0 13 bef.	Mahometans
	Tunis	220	170	Tunis	990 S. E.	0 39 bef.	Mahometans
	Tripoli	700	240	Tripoli	1260 S. E.	0 56 bef.	Mahometans
	Barca	400	300	Tolemeta	1440 S. E.	1 26 bef.	Mahometans
	Egypt	600	250	Grand Cairo	1920 S. E.	2 21 bef.	Mahometans
	Bilidulgerid	2500	350	Dara	1565 S.	0 32 aft.	Pagans
	Zaara	2400	660	Tegeſſa	1840 S.	0 24 aft.	Pagans
	Negroland	2200	840	Madinga	2500 S.	0 38 aft.	Pagans
	Guinea	1800	360	Benin	2700 S.	0 20 bef.	Pagans
Up. Ethiopia.	Nubia	940	600	Nubia	2418 S. E.	2 12 bef.	Mah. & Pag.
	Abyſſinia	900	800	Gondar	2880 S. E.	2 20 bef.	Chriſtians
	Abex	540	130	Doncala	3580 S. E.	2 36 bef.	Chriſt. & Pag.
	The Middle Parts, called Lower Ethiopia, are very little known to the Europeans.						
Lower Guinea.	Loango	410	300	Loango	3300 S.	0 44 bef.	Chriſt. & Pag.
	Congo	540	420	St. Salvador	3480 S.	1 0 bef.	Chriſt. & Pag.
	Angola	360	250	Loando	3750 S.	0 58 bef.	Chriſt. & Pag.
	Benguela	430	180	Beneguela	3900 S.	0 58 bef.	Pagans
	Matanan	450	240	No Towns	* * *	* * *	Pagans
	Ajan	900	300	Brava	3702 S. E.	2 40 bef.	Pagans
	Zanguebar	1400	350	Melinda or Mozambique	4440 S. E.	2 38 bef.	Pagans
	Monomotapa	960	660	Monomotapa	4500 S.	1 18 bef.	Pagans
	Monemugi	900	660	Chicova	4260 S.	1 44 bef.	Pagans
	Sofola	480	300	Sofola	4600 S. E.	2 18 bef.	Pagans
	Terra de Nat.	600	350	No Towns	* * *	* * *	Pagans
	Caffaria or Hottentots	780	660	Cape of Good Hope	5200 S.	1 4 bef.	Moſt ſtupid Pagans

The principal iſlands of Africa lie in the Indian ſeas and Atlantic ocean; of which the following belong to, or trade with the Europeans, and ſerve to refreſh their ſhipping to and from India.

Iſlands.	Towns.	Trade with or belong to
Babelmandel, at the entrance of the Red Sea	Babelmandel	All nations
Zocotra, in the Indian Ocean	Calanſia	Ditto
The Comora Iſles, ditto	Joanna	Ditto
Madagaſcar, ditto	St. Auſtin	Ditto
Mauritius, ditto	Mauritius	French
Bourbon, ditto	Bourbon	Ditto
St. Helena, in the Atlantic Ocean	St. Helena	Engliſh
Aſcenſion, ditto		Uninhabited
St. Mathew, ditto		Ditto
St. Thomas, Anaboa, Princes-Iſland, Fernandopo, ditto	St. Thomas, Anaboa	Portugueze
Cape Verd Iſlands, ditto	St. Domingo	Ditto
Goree, ditto	Fort St. Michael	French
Canaries, ditto	Palma, St. Chriſtophers	Spaniſh
Madeiras, ditto	Santa Cruz, Funchal	Portugueze
The Azores, or Weſtern Iſles, lie nearly at an equal diſtance from Europe, Aſia, and Africa, ditto	Angra	Ditto

Having given the reader ſome idea of Africa, in general, with the principal kingdoms, and their ſuppoſed dimenſions, we ſhall now conſider it under three grand diviſions: firſt, Egypt; ſecondly, the ſtates of Barbary, ſtretching along the coaſt of the Mediterranean, from Egypt in the eaſt, to the Atlantic Ocean, weſt; and, laſtly, that part of Africa between the tropic of Cancer, and the cape of Good Hope; the laſt of theſe diviſions, indeed, is vaſtly greater than the other two; but the nations, which it contains, are ſo little known, and ſo barbarous, and like all barbarous nations, ſo ſimilar in moſt reſpects to one another, that they may, without impropriety, be thrown under one general head.

EGYPT.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 600	between	20 and 32 north latitude.
Breadth 250		28 and 36 eaſt longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded by the Mediterranean ſea, north; by the Red ſea, eaſt; by Abyſſinia, or the Upper Ethiopia, on the ſouth; and by the deſart of Barca, and the unknown parts of Africa, weſt.

Diviſions.	Subdiviſions.	Chief towns.
Northern diviſion contains	Lower Egypt	Grand Cairo, E. lon. 32, N. lat. 30.
		Bulac
		Alexandria
		Roſetto
		Damietta
Southern diviſion contains	Upper Egypt	Sayd or Thebes
		Coſſiar

AIR.] In April and May the air is hot, and often infectious; the inhabitants are blinded with drifts of ſand. Thoſe evils are remedied by the riſing and overflowing of the Nile.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] Whoever is in the leaſt acquainted with literature, knows that the vaſt fertility of Egypt is not owing to rain, (little falling in that country) but to the annual overflowing of the Nile. It begins to riſe when the ſun is vertical in Ethiopia, and the annual rains fall there, viz. the latter end of May to September, and ſometimes October. At the height of its flood in the Lower Egypt, nothing is to be ſeen in the plains, but the tops of foreſts and fruit-trees, their

towns and villages being built upon eminences either natural or artificial. When the river is at its proper height, the inhabitants celebrate a kind of a jubilee, with all ſorts of feſtivities. The banks or mounds which confine it, are cut by the Turkiſh baſha, attended by his grandees; but according to captain Norden, who was preſent on the occaſion, the ſpectacle is not very magnificent. When the banks are cut, the water is let into what they call the Chalis, or grand canal, which runs through Cairo, from whence it is diſtributed into cuts, for ſupplying their fields and gardens. This being done, and the waters beginning to retire, ſuch is the fertility of the ſoil, that the labouring huſbandman is next to nothing. He throws his wheat and barley into the ground in October and May. He turns his cattle out to graze in November, and in about ſix weeks, nothing can be more charming than the proſpect, which the face of the country preſents, in riſing corn, vegetables, and verdure of every ſort. Oranges, lemons, and fruits, perfume the air. The culture of pulſe, melons, ſugar canes, and other plants, which require moiſture, is ſupplied by ſmall but regular cuts from ciſterns and reſervoirs. Dates, plantanes, grapes, figs, and palm-trees, from which wine is made, are here plentiful. March and April are the harveſt months, and they produce three crops; one of lettuces and cucumbers, (the latter being the chief food of the inhabitants) one of corn, and one of melons. The Egyptian paſturage is equally prolific, moſt of the quadrupeds producing two at a time, and the ſheep four lambs a year.

Animals.] Egypt abounds in black cattle, and it is ſaid that the inhabitants employ every day 200,000 oxen, in raiſing water for their grounds. They have a fine large breed of aſſes, upon which the Chriſtians ride, thoſe people not being ſuffered by the Turks to ride on any other beaſt. The Egyptian horſes are very fine; they never trot, but walk well, and gallop with great ſpeed, turn ſhort, ſtop in a moment, and are extremely tractable. The hippopotamus, or river horſe, an amphibious animal, reſembling an ox, in its hinder parts, with the head like a horſe, is common in Upper Egypt. Tygers, hyenas, camels, antelopes, apes, with the head like a dog, and the rat, called Ichneumon, are natives of Egypt. The camelion, a little animal ſomething reſembling a lizard, that changes colour, as you ſtand to look upon him, is found here as well as in other countries. The crocodile was formerly thought peculiar to this country; but there does not ſeem to be any material difference between it, and the alligators of India and America. They are both amphibious animals, in the form of a lizard, and grow till they are about twenty feet

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in length, and have four short legs, with large feet armed with claws, and their backs are covered with a kind of impenetrable scales, like armour. The crocodile waits for his prey in the sedge, and other cover, on the sides of rivers, and pretty much resembling the trunk of an old tree, sometimes surprizes the unwary traveller with his fore paws, or beats him down with his tail.

This country produces likewise great numbers of eagles, hawks, pelicans, and water-fowls of all kinds. The ibis, a creature (according to Mr. Norden) somewhat resembling a duck, was deified by the antient Egyptians for its destroying serpents, and pestiferous insects. They were thought to be peculiar to Egypt, but a species of them is said to have been lately discovered in other parts of Africa. Ostriches are common here, and are so strong, that the Arabs sometimes ride upon their backs.

POPULATION, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. As the population of Egypt is almost confined to the banks of the Nile, and the rest of the country inhabited by Arabs, and other nations, we can say little upon this head, with precision. It seems however to be certain, that Egypt is at present not near so populous as formerly, and that its depopulation is owing to the inhabitants being slaves to the Turks. They are, however, still very numerous, but the populousness of Cairo, as if it contained two millions, is a mere fiction.

The descendents of the original Egyptians, are an ill-looked slovenly people, immersed in indolence, and are distinguished by the name of Coptis; in their complexions they are rather sun-burnt than swarthy, or black. Their ancestors were once Christians, and in general they still pretend to be of that religion. Mahometanism is the prevailing worship among the natives. Those who inhabit the villages and fields, at any considerable distance from the Nile, I have already mentioned to consist of Arabs or their descendents, who are of a deep swarthy complexion, and they are represented by the best authorities, as retaining the patriarchal tending their flocks and many of them without any fixed place of abode. The Turks, who reside in Egypt, retain all their Ottoman pride and insolence, and the Turkish habit, to distinguish themselves from the Arabs and Coptis, who dress very plain, their chief finery being an upper garment of white linen, and linen drawers, but their ordinary dress is of blue linen, with a long cloath coat, either over or under it. The Christians and Arabs of the meaner kind, content themselves with a linen or woollen wrapper, which they fold, blanket-like, round their

body. The Jews wear blue leather ſlippers, the other natives of the country wear red, and the foreign Chriſtians yellow. The dreſs of the women is tawdry and unbecoming, but their cloaths are ſilk, when they can afford it, and ſuch of them as are not expoſed to the ſun, have delicate complexions and features. The Coptis are generally excellent accomptants, and many of them live by teaching the other natives to read and write. Their exerciſes and diverſions are much the ſame as thoſe made uſe of in Perſia, and other Aſiatic dominions. All Egypt is over-run with jugglers, fortune-tellers, mountebanks, and travelling ſlight-of-hand men.

RELIGION.] To what I have already ſaid concerning the religion of Egypt, it is proper to add, that the bulk of the Mahometans are enthuſiaſts, and have among them their ſantos or fellows who pretend to a ſuperior degree of holineſs, and without any ceremony intrude into the beſt houſes, where it would be dangerous to turn them out. The Egyptian Turks mind religious affairs very little, and it would be hard to ſay what ſpecies of Chriſtianity is profeſſed by the Chriſtian Cops, which are here numerous, but they profeſs themſelves to be of the Greek church, and enemies to that of Rome. In religious, and indeed many civil matters, they are under the juriſdiction of the patriarch of Alexandria, who by the dint of money generally purchaſes a protection at the Ottoman court.

LANGUAGE.] The Coptic is the moſt antient language of Egypt. This was ſucceeded by the Greek, about the time of Alexander the Great; and that by the Arabic, upon the commencement of the califate, when the Arabs diſpoſſeſſed the Greeks of Egypt. The Arabic, or Arabeſque, as it is called, is ſtill the current language, but the Coptic and modern Greek continue to be ſpoken.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Though it is paſt diſpute that the Greeks derived all their knowledge from the antient Egyptians, yet ſcarce a veſtige of it remains among their deſcendents. This is owing to the bigotry and ignorance of their Mahometan maſters, but here it is proper to make one obſervation which is of general uſe. The califs or Saracens who ſubdued Egypt, were of three kinds. The firſt, who were the immediate ſucceſſors of Mahomet, made war from conſcience and principle upon all kind of literature excepting the Alcoran; and hence it was that when they took poſſeſſion of Alexandria, which contained the moſt magnificent library the world ever beheld, its valuable manuſcripts were applied for ſome months in cooking their victuals, and warming their baths. The ſame fate attended upon the other magnificent Egyptian libraries. The califs of the ſecond race, were men

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of taſte and learning, but of a peculiar ſtrain. They bought up all the manuſcripts that ſurvived the general conflagration relating to aſtronomy, medicine, and ſome uſeleſs parts of philoſophy, but they had no taſte for the Greek arts of architecture, ſculpture, painting, or poetry, and learning was confined to their own courts and colleges, without ever finding its way back to Egypt. The lower race of califs, eſpecially thoſe who called themſelves califs of Egypt, diſgraced human nature; and the Turks have rivetted the chains of barbarous ignorance which they impoſed.

All the learning therefore poſſeſſed by the modern Egyptians conſiſts in arithmetical calculations for the diſpatch of buſineſs, the jargon of aſtrology, a few noſtrums in medicine, and ſome knowledge of Arabeſque or the Mahometan religion.

CURIOSITIES AND ANTIQUITIES.] Egypt abounds more with thoſe than perhaps any other part of the world. Its pyramids have been often deſcribed. Their antiquity is beyond the reſearches of hiſtory itſelf, and their original uſes are ſtill unknown. The baſis of the largeſt, covers eleven acres of ground, and its perpendicular height is 500 feet, but if meaſured obliquely to the terminating point 700 feet. It contains a room thirty-four feet long, and ſeventeen broad, in which is a marble cheſt, but without either cover or contents, ſuppoſed to have been deſigned for the tomb of the founder. In ſhort, the pyramids of Egypt are the moſt ſtupendous, and, to appearance, the moſt uſeleſs ſtructures that ever were raiſed by the hands of men.

The mummy pits, ſo called for their containing the mummies or embalmed bodies of the antient Egyptians, are ſubterraneous vaults of a prodigious extent; but the art of preparing the mummies is now loſt. It is ſaid that ſome of the bodies thus embalmed, are perfect and diſtinct at this day, though buried 3000 years ago. The labyrinth is a curioſity thought to be more wonderful than the pyramids themſelves. It is partly under ground, and cut out of a marble rock, conſiſting of twelve palaces, and 1000 houſes, the intricacies of which occaſion its name. The lake Mæris was dug by order of an Egyptian king, to correct the irregularities of the Nile, and to communicate with that river, by canals and ditches which ſtill ſubſiſt, and are evidences of the utility, as well as grandeur of the work. Wonderful grottos and excavations, moſtly artificial, abound in Egypt. The whole country towards Grand Cairo, is a continued ſcene of antiquities, of which the oldeſt are the moſt ſtupendous, but the more modern the moſt beautiful. Cleopatra's needle, and its ſculptures, are admirable. Pompey's pillar is a fine regular column of the

Corinthian order, the ſhaft of which is one ſtone, being eighty-eight feet, nine inches in height, or ten diameters of the column, the whole height is 114 feet, including the capital and the pedeſtal. The Sphynx, as it is called, is no more than the head and part of the ſhoulders of a woman hewn out of the rock, and about thirty feet high, near one of the pyramids.

The papyrus is one of the natural curioſities of Egypt, and ſerved the antients to write upon, but we know not the manner of preparing it. The pith of it is a nouriſhing food. The manner of hatching chickens in ovens, is common in Egypt, and now practiſed in ſome parts of Europe. The conſtruction of the oven is very curious.

CITIES, TOWNS, AND PUBLIC EDIFICES. Even a ſlight review of theſe would amount to a large volume. In many places, not only temples, but the walls of cities, built before the time of Alexander the Great, are ſtill entire, and many of their ornaments, particularly the colours of their paintings, are as freſh and vivid, as when firſt laid on.

Alexandria, which lies on the Levant coaſt, was once the emporium of all the world, and by means of the Red-Sea, furniſhed Europe, and great part of Aſia, with the riches of India. It owes its name to its founder, Alexander the Great. It ſtands forty miles weſt from the Nile, and a hundred and twenty north-weſt of Cairo. It roſe upon the ruins of Tyre and Carthage, and is famous for the light-houſe erected on the oppoſite iſland of Pharos, for the direction of mariners, deſervedly eſteemed one of the wonders of the world. All the other parts of the city were magnificent in proportion, as appears from their ruins, particularly the ciſterns and aqueducts. Many of the materials of the old city, however, have been employed in building Nero Alexandria, which at preſent is a very ordinary ſeaport, known by the name of Scanderoon. Notwithſtanding the poverty, ignorance, and indolence of the inhabitants, their moſques, bagnios, and the like buildings, erected within theſe ruins, preſerve an inexpreſſible air of majeſty. Some think that Old Alexandria was built from the materials of the antient Memphis.

Roſetta, or Raſchid, ſtands twenty-five miles to the north-weſt of Alexandria, and is recommended for its beautiful ſituation, and delightful proſpects, which command the fine country, or iſland of Delta, formed by the Nile, near its mouth. It is likewiſe a place of great trade.

Cairo, the preſent capital of Egypt, is a large and populous, but a diſagreeable reſidence, on account of its peſtilential air, and its narrow ſtreets. It is divided into two towns, the old,

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and the new, and defended by an old caſtle, the works of which are ſaid to be three miles in circumference. The well called Joſeph's well, is a curious piece of mechaniſm, about 300 feet deep. The memory of that patriarch is ſtill revered in Egypt, where they ſhew granaries, and many other works of public utility, that go under his name. They are certainly of vaſt antiquity, but it is very queſtionable whether they were erected by him. One of his granaries is ſhewn in Old Cairo, but captain Norden ſuſpects it is a Saracen work, nor does he give us any high idea of the buildings of the city itſelf. On the bank of the Nile, facing Cairo, lies the village of Gize, which is thought to be the antient Memphis. The Chriſtians of Cairo practiſe a holy cheat, during the Eaſter holidays, by pretending that the limbs and bodies of the dead ariſe from their graves, to which they return peaceably. The ſtreets of Cairo are peſtered with the jugglers and fortune-tellers already mentioned. One of their favourite exhibitions is their dancing camels, which, when young, they place upon a large heated floor: the intenſe heat makes the poor creatures caper, and being plied all the time with the ſound of drums, the noiſe of that inſtrument ſets them a dancing all their lives after.

The other towns of note in Egypt are Damietta, ſuppoſed to be the antient Peluſium; Bulac; Seyd, on the weſt bank of the Nile, 200 miles ſouth of Cairo, ſaid to be the antient Egyptian Thebes, and by the few who have viſited it, it is reported to be the moſt capital antique curioſity that is now extant. The general practice of ſtrangers, who viſit thoſe places, is to hire a janiſary, whoſe authority commonly protects them from the inſults of the other natives. Suez, formerly a place of great trade, is now a ſmall city, and gives name to the iſthmus, that joins Africa with Aſia. The children of Iſrael are ſuppoſed to have marched near this city, when they left Egypt, in their way towards the Red-Sea. The above is all the account my bounds will admit of the topography of this country, where almoſt every object and village preſents ſome amazing piece of antiquity. The difficulties in viſiting it are great; ſo that the accounts we can depend upon, are but few, nor do they always agree together.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] Modern geographers mention little of Egyptian manufactures at this time, but captain Norden, who travelled to that country, at the expence of his preſent Daniſh majeſty's grandfather, about the year 1737, has been pretty explicit on the ſubject of commerce, and from him we learn that the Egyptians export prodigious

quantities of unmanufactured as well as prepared flax, thread, cotton, and leather of all ſorts, callicoes, yellow wax, ſal armoniac, ſaffron, ſugar, ſenna, caſſia. They trade with the Arabs, for coffee, drugs, ſpices, callicoes, and other merchandizes, which are landed at Suez, from whence they ſend them to Europe. Several European ſtates have conſuls reſident in Egypt, but the cuſtoms of the Turkiſh government are managed by Jews. A number of Engliſh veſſels arrive yearly at Alexandria, ſome of which are laden on account of the owners, but moſt of them are hired and employed as carriers to the Jews, Armenians, and Mahometan traders. Captain Norden ſeems to think that the Engliſh conſul and merchants make no great figure at Alexandria, but that they are in much leſs danger, and leſs troubled than the French.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Theſe ſeem to be but little known to modern times. It is certain that Egypt is ſubject to the Turks, and that even the meaneſt janiſary is reſpected by the natives. A viceroy is ſent to Egypt, under the title of the paſha or baſhaw of Cairo, and is one of the greateſt officers of the Ottoman empire; but as the interior parts of Egypt are almoſt inacceſſible to ſtrangers, we know little of their government and laws. It is generally agreed, that the paſha is very careful how he provokes the little princes, or rather heads of clans, who have parcelled out Egypt among themſelves, and whom he governs chiefly by playing one againſt another. He has however a large regular army, and a militia, which ſerve as nurſeries from whence the Ottoman troops are recruited. The keeping up this army employs his chief attention. It has ſometimes happened, that thoſe paſhas have employed their arms againſt their maſters; and they are ſometimes diſplaced by the Porte, upon complaints from thoſe petty princes. Thoſe circumſtances may account for the reaſon why Egypt is not over-loaded with taxes. Captain Norden and Dr. Pocock have given us the beſt, and indeed a very unfavourable account of thoſe petty princes, who are called the Schechs of the Bedouins, or wandering Arabs, who are ſometimes too powerful to receive laws from the Turkiſh government.

A certain number of beys or begs, are appointed over the provinces of Egypt, under the paſha. Though theſe beys are deſigned to be checks upon him, yet they often aſſume independent powers, and many of them have conſiderable revenues.

REVENUES.] Theſe are very inconſiderable, when compared to the natural riches of the country, and the deſpotiſm of its government. Some ſay that they amount to a million ſterling, but that two-thirds of the whole is ſpent in the country.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] Authors are greatly divided on this article. Captain Norden tells us, that it is divided into two corps of janiſaries, and aſſafs are the chief, the former amounting to about ſix or eight thouſand, and the latter to between three and four thouſand. The other troops are of little account. After all, it does not at all appear, that the paſha ever ventures to employ thoſe troops againſt the Arab or Egyptian princes I have already mentioned, and who have ſeparate armies of their own; ſo that, in fact, their dependance upon the Porte, is little more than nominal, and amounts at moſt to feudal ſervices.

HISTORY.] It is generally agreed, that the princes of the line of the Pharaohs, ſat on the throne of Egypt, in an uninterrupted ſucceſſion, till Cambyſes II. king of Perſia, conquered the Egyptians 520 years before the birth of Chriſt; and that in the reign of theſe princes, thoſe wonderful ſtructures the pyramids were raiſed, which cannot be viewed without aſtoniſhment. Egypt continued a part of the Perſian empire, till Alexander the Great vanquiſhed Darius, when it fell under the dominion of that prince, who ſoon after built the celebrated city of Alexandria. The conqueſts of Alexander, who died in the prime of life, being ſeized upon by his generals, the province of Egypt fell to the ſhare of Ptolemy, by ſome ſuppoſed to have been a half-brother of Alexander, when it again became an independent kingdom, about 300 years before Chriſt. His ſucceſſors, who ſometimes extended their dominion over great part of Syria, ever after retained the name of Ptolemies, and in that line Egypt continued between two and three hundred years, till the famous Cleopatra, the wife and ſiſter of Ptolemy Dionyſius, the laſt king, aſcended the throne. After the death of Cleopatra, who had been miſtreſs ſucceſſively to Julius Cæſar and Mark Anthony, Egypt became a Roman province, and thus remained till the reign of Omar, the ſecond calif of the ſucceſſors of Mahomet, who expelled the Romans, after it had been in their hands 700 years. The famous library of Alexandria, ſaid to conſiſt of 700,000 volumes, was collected by Ptolemy Philadelphus, ſon of the firſt Ptolemy; and the ſame prince cauſed the Old Teſtament to be tranſlated into Greek, but whether by ſeventy-two interpreters, and in the manner commonly related, is juſtly queſtioned; this tranſlation is known by the name of the Septuagint, and is often quoted by commentators. About the time of the cruſades, between the year 1150, and 1190, Egypt was governed by Noreddin, whoſe ſon, the famous Saladin, was ſo dreadful to thoſe Chriſtian adventurers, and retook from them Jeruſalem. He inſtituted the military corps

of

of Mamalukes, who, about the year 1242, advanced one of their own officers to the throne, and ever after chose their prince out of their own body. Egypt, for some time, made a figure under those illustrious usurpers, and made a noble stand against the prevailing power of the Turks, under Selim, who, about the year 1517, after giving the Mamalukes several bloody defeats, reduced Egypt to its present state of subjection.

While Selim was settling the government of Egypt, great numbers of the antient inhabitants withdrew into the deserts and plains, under one Zinganeus, from whence they attacked the cities and villages of the Nile, and plundered whatever fell in their way. Selim and his officers perceiving that it would be a matter of great difficulty to extirpate those marauders, left them at liberty to quit the country, which they did in great numbers, and their posterity is known all over Europe and Asia, by the name of Gipsies. Though I shall not warrant the truth of this account, yet it seems to be countenanced from the roving dispositions, and the peculiar manners, features, and complexion of those swarthy begging itinerants. Of late, however, many of them have incorporated with, and adopted the manners of the people among whom they reside.

THE STATES OF BARBARY.

UNDER this head I shall rank the countries of, 1. Morocco and Fez, 2. Algiers, 3. Tunis, 4. Tripoli and Barca.

The empire of Morocco, including Fez, is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean sea; on the south, by Tafilet; and on the east, by Segelmessa and the kingdom of Algiers; being 500 miles in length, and 480 in breadth.

Fez, which is now united to Morocco, is about 125 miles in length, and much the same in breadth. It lies between the kingdom of Algiers to the east, and Morocco on the south, and is surrounded in other parts by the sea.

Algiers, formerly a kingdom, is bounded on the east by the kingdom of Tunis, on the north by the Mediterranean, on the south by Mount Atlas, and on the west by the kingdoms of Morocco and Tafilet. According to Dr. Shaw, who resided twelve years at Algiers in quality of chaplain to the British factory, and has corrected many errors of ancient and modern geographers respecting the states of Barbary, this country extends in length 480 miles along the coast of the Mediterranean, and is between 40 and 100 miles in breadth.

Tunis

Tunis is bounded by the Mediterranean on the north and eaſt; by the kingdom of Algiers on the weſt; and by Tripoli, with part of Biledulgerid, on the ſouth; being 220 miles in length from north to ſouth, and 170 in breadth from eaſt to weſt.

Tripoli, including Barca, is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean ſea; on the ſouth by the country of the Beriberies; on the weſt by the kingdom of Tunis, Biledulgerid, and a territory of the Gadamis; and on the eaſt by Egypt; extending about 1100 miles along the ſea-coaſt; and the breadth is from 1 to 300 miles.

Each capital bears the name of the ſtate or kingdom to which it belongs.

This being premiſed, I ſhall conſider the Barbary ſtates as forming (which they really do) a great political confederacy, however independent each may be as to the exerciſe of its internal policy; nor is there a greater difference than happens in different provinces of the ſame kingdom, in the cuſtoms and manners of the inhabitants.

AIR AND SEASONS.] The air of Morocco is mild, as is that of Algiers, and indeed all the other ſtates, excepting in the months of July and Auguſt.

SOIL, VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND. } Thoſe ſtates, under the Roman empire, were juſtly denominated the garden of the world, and to have a reſidence there was conſidered as the higheſt ſtage of luxury. The produce of their ſoil formed thoſe magazines, which furniſhed all Italy, and great part of the Roman empire, with corn, wine, and oil. Though the lands are now uncultivated, through the oppreſſion and barbarity of their conſtitution, yet they are ſtill fertile, not only in the above-mentioned commodities, but in dates, figs, raiſins, almonds, apples, pears, cherries, plums, citrons, lemons, oranges, pomegranates, with plenty of roots and herbs in their kitchen-gardens. Excellent hemp and flax grow on their plains; and by the report of Europeans, who have lived there for ſome time, the country abounds with all that can add to the pleaſures of life; for their great people find means to evade the ſobriety preſcribed by the Mahometan law, and make free with excellent wines, and ſpirits of their own growth and manufacture. Algiers produces ſalt-petre, and great quantities of excellent ſalt, and lead and iron have been found in ſeveral places of Barbary.

Neither the elephant nor the rhinoceros are to be found in the ſtates of Barbary, but their deſerts abound with lions, tigers, leopards, hyænas, and monſtrous ſerpents. The Barbary horſes were formerly very valuable, and thought equal to the Arabian.

bian. Though their breed are now ſaid to be decayed, yet ſome very fine ones have been lately imported into England. Camels and dromedaries, aſſes, mules, and kumrahs, a moſt ſerviceable creature, begot by an aſs upon a cow, are their beaſts of burden. Their cows are but ſmall, and barren of milk. Their ſheep yield but indifferent fleeces, but are very large, as are their goats. Bears, porcupines, foxes, apes, hares, rabbits, ferrets, weaſels, moles, cameleons, and all kinds of reptiles are found here. Beſides vermin, ſays Dr. Shaw, (ſpeaking of his travels thro' Barbary) the apprehenſions we were under in ſome parts at leaſt of this country, of being bitten or ſtung by the ſcorpion, the viper, or the venomous-ſpider, rarely failed to interrupt our repoſe; a refreſhment ſo very grateful, and ſo highly neceſſary to a weary traveller. Partridges and quails, eagles, hawks, and all kind of wild fowl, are found on this coaſt; and of the ſmaller birds, the capſa-ſparrow is remarkable for its beauty, and the ſweetneſs of its note, which is thought to exceed that of any other bird, but it cannot live out of its own climate. The ſeas and bays of Barbary abound with the fineſt and moſt delicious fiſh of every kind, and were preferred by the ancients to thoſe of Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. Morocco was certainly formerly far more populous than it is now, if, as travellers ſay, its capital contained 100,000 houſes, whereas at preſent, it is thought not to contain above 25,000 inhabitants, nor can we think that the other parts of the country are more populous, if it is true, that their king or emperor has 80,000 horſe and foot, of foreign negroes, in his armies.

The city of Algiers is ſaid to contain 100,000 Mahometans, 15,000 Jews, and 2000 Chriſtian ſlaves; but no eſtimate can be formed as to the populouſneſs of its territory. Some travellers report, that it is inhabited by a friendly hoſpitable people, who are very different in their manners and character from thoſe of the metropolis.

Tunis is the moſt poliſhed republic of all the Barbary ſtates. The capital contains 10,000 families, and above 3000 tradeſmens ſhops, and its ſuburbs conſiſt of 1000 houſes. The Tuniſines are indeed exceptions to the other ſtates of Barbary; for even the moſt civilized of the European governments, might improve from their manners. Their diſtinctions are well kept up, and proper reſpect is paid to the military, mercantile, and learned profeſſions. They cultivate friendſhip with the European ſtates; arts and manufactures have been lately introduced among them, and the inhabitants are ſaid at preſent to be well acquainted with the various labours of the loom.

loom. The Tuniſine women are exceſſively handſome in their perſons, and though the men are ſun-burnt, the complexion of the ladies is very delicate, nor are they leſs neat and elegant in their dreſs; but they improve the beauty of their eyes by art, particularly the powder of lead ore, the ſame pigment, according to the opinion of the learned Dr. Shaw, that Jezebel made uſe of when ſhe is ſaid (2 Kings chap. ix. verſe 30.) to have painted her face, the words of the original being, that ſhe ſet off her eyes with the powder of lead-ore. The gentlemen in general are ſober, orderly, and clean in their perſons, their behaviour genteel and complaiſant, and a wonderful regularity reigns through all the ſtreets and city.

Tripoli was once the richeſt, moſt populous, and opulent of all the ſtates on the coaſt; but it is now much reduced, and the inhabitants, who are ſaid to amount to between 4 and 500,000, have all the vices of the Algerines.

Their manners are pretty much of a piece with thoſe of the Egyptians already deſcribed. The ſubjects of the Barbary ſtates, however, in general ſubſiſting by piracy, are allowed to be bold intrepid mariners, and will fight deſperately when they meet with a prize at ſea. They are notwithſtanding far inferior to the Engliſh, and other European ſtates, both in the conſtruction and management of their veſſels. They are, if we except the Tuniſines, void of all arts and literature. The miſery and poverty of the inhabitants of Morocco, who are not immediately in the emperor's ſervice, are beyond all deſcription; but thoſe who inhabit the inland parts of the country, are a hoſpitable inoffenſive people, and indeed it is a general obſervation, that the more diſtant the inhabitants of thoſe ſtates are from the ſeats of their government, their manners are the more pure. Notwithſtanding their poverty, they have a livelineſs about them, eſpecially thoſe who are of Arabic deſcent, that gives them an air of contentment, and having nothing to loſe, they are peaceable among themſelves. The Moors are ſuppoſed to be the original inhabitants, but are now blended with the Arabs, and both are cruelly oppreſſed by a handful of inſolent domineering Turks, the refuſe of the ſtreets of Conſtantinople.

DRESS.] The dreſs of theſe people is a linen ſhirt, over which they tie a ſilk or cloth veſtment with a ſaſh, and over that a looſe coat. Their drawers are made of linen. The arms and legs of the wearer are bare, but they have ſlippers on their feet; and perſons of condition ſometimes wear buſkins. They never move their turbans, but pull off their ſlippers when they attend religious duties, or the perſon of their ſovereign. They are fond of ſtriped and fancied ſilks. The dreſs

of the women is not very different from that of the men, but their drawers are longer, and they wear a ſort of a cawl on their heads inſtead of a turban. The chief furniture of their houſes conſiſts of carpets and mattreſſes, on which they ſit and lie. In eating, their ſlovenlineſs is ſhocking. They are prohibited gold and ſilver veſſels; and their meat, which they ſwallow by handfuls, is boiled or roaſted to rags. Adultery in the women is puniſhed with death; but though the men are indulged with a plurality of wives and concubines, they commit the moſt unnatural crimes with impunity.

RELIGION.] The inhabitants of thoſe ſtates are Mahometans: but many ſubjects of Morocco follow the tenets of one Hamed, a modern ſectariſt, and an enemy to the antient doctrine of the califs. All of them are very fond of ideots, and in ſome caſes their protection ſcreens offenders from puniſhment, for the moſt notorious crimes. In the main, however, the Moors of Barbary, as the inhabitants of thoſe ſtates are now promiſcuouſly called, have adopted the very worſt parts of the Mahometan religion, and ſeem to have retained only as much of it as authorizes them to commit the moſt horrible villanies.

LANGUAGE.] As the ſtates of Barbary poſſeſs thoſe countries that formerly went by the name of Mauritania and Numidia, the antient African language is ſtill ſpoken in ſome of the inland countries, and even by ſome inhabitants of the city of Morocco. In the ſea port towns, and maritime countries, a baſtard kind of Arabic is ſpoken, and ſea-faring people are no ſtrangers to that medley of living and dead languages, that is ſo well known in all the ports of the Mediterranean, by the name of Lingua Franca.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] This article is well worth the ſtudy of an antiquary, but the ſubjects of it are difficult of acceſs. The reader can ſcarcely doubt that the countries which contained Carthage, and the pride of the Phenician, Greek, and Roman works, is replete with the moſt curious remains of antiquity, but they lie ſcattered amidſt ignorant, barbarous inhabitants. Some remains of the Mauritanian and Numidian greatneſs are ſtill to be met with, and many ruins which bear evidences of their antient grandeur and populouſneſs. Theſe point out the old Julia Cæſarea of the Romans, which was little inferior in magnificence to Carthage itſelf. A few of the aqueducts of Carthage are ſaid to be ſtill remaining, but no veſtige of its walls. The ſame is the fate of Utica, and many other renowned cities of antiquity; and ſo over-run is the country with barbariſm, that their very ſcites are not known, even by their ruins, amphitheatres, and other public buildings which remain

remain ſtill in tolerable preſervation. Beſides thoſe of claſſical antiquity, many Saracen monuments of the moſt ſtupendous magnificence are likewiſe found in this vaſt tract; theſe were erected under the califs of Bagdat, and the antient kings of the country before it was ſubdued by the Turks, or reduced to its preſent form of government. Their walls form the principal fortifications in the country, both inland and maritime. We know of few or no natural curioſities belonging to this country, excepting its ſalt-pits, which in ſome places take up an area of ſix miles. Dr. Shaw mentions ſprings found here that are ſo hot as to boil a large piece of mutton very tender in a quarter of an hour.

Before I cloſe this article it may be proper to obſerve, that this country has been but little viſited by the curious, if we except Dr. Shaw; but it certainly deſerves a more accurate inveſtigation.

CITIES AND PUBLIC BUILDINGS.] Mention has already been made of Morocco, the capital of that kingdom, but now almoſt in ruins, the court having removed to Mequinez, a city of Fez. Incredible things are recorded of the magnificent palaces in both cities, but by the beſt accounts, the common people live in a dirty ſlovenly manner.

The city of Algiers, is not above a mile and a half in circuit, though, as I have already obſerved, it is computed to contain near 120,000 inhabitants, 15,000 houſes, and 107 moſques. Their public baths are large, and handſomely paved with marble. The proſpect of the country and ſea from Algiers is very beautiful; but the city, though for ſeveral ages it has braved the greateſt powers in Chriſtendom, could make but a faint defence againſt a regular ſiege; and it is ſaid that three Engliſh fifty-gun ſhips might batter it about the ears of its inhabitants from the harbour.

The kingdom of Tunis, which is naturally the fineſt of all theſe ſtates, contains the remains of many noble cities, ſome of them ſtill in good condition. The town itſelf has fortifications, and is about three miles in circumference. The houſes are not magnificent, but neat and commodious; as is the public exchange for merchants and their goods; but, like Algiers, it is diſtreſſed for want of freſh water.

The city of Tripoli conſiſts of an old and new town, the latter being the moſt flouriſhing; but never can make any conſiderable figure, on account of the inconveniencies attending its ſituation, particularly the want of ſweet water. The city of Oran, lying upon this coaſt, is about a mile in circumference, and is fortified both by art and nature. It was a place of conſiderable trade, and the object of many bloody

diſputes between the Spaniards and the Moors. Conſtantina was the antient Cirta, and one of the ſtrongeſt cities of Numidia, being inacceſſible on all ſides, excepting the ſouth-weſt.

Beſides the above towns and cities, many other, formerly of great renown, lie ſcattered up and down this immenſe tract of country. I cannot, however, leave it without mentioning the city of Fez, at preſent the capital of that kingdom: ſome ſay that it contains near 300,000 inhabitants, beſides merchants and foreigners. Its moſques amount to 500, one of them magnificent beyond deſcription, and about a mile and a half in circumference. Mequinez is eſteemed the great emporium of all Barbary. Sallee lies in the ſame kingdom, and was formerly famous for the piracies of its inhabitants. Tangier, ſituated about two miles within the ſtraits of Gibraltar, was given by the crown of Portugal as part of the dowry of queen Catharine, conſort of Charles II. of England. It was intended to be to the Engliſh what Gibraltar is now; and it muſt have been a moſt noble acquiſition, had not the miſunderſtandings between the king and his parliament obliged him to blow up its fortifications and demoliſh its harbour; ſo that from being one of the fineſt cities in Africa, it is now little better than a fiſhing town. Ceuta, upon the ſame ſtrait, almoſt oppoſite to Gibraltar, is ſtill in the hands of the Spaniards, but often, if not always beſieged or blocked up by the Moors. Tetuan, which lies within twenty miles of Ceuta, is now but an ordinary town, containing about 800 houſes; but the inhabitants are ſaid to be rich, extremely complaiſant, and they live in an elegant manner.

The provinces of Suz, Taſilet, and Geſula, form no part of the ſtates of Barbary, though the king of Morocco pretends to be their ſovereign; nor do they contain any thing that is particularly curious.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The lower ſubjects of thoſe ſtates, know very few imaginary wants, and depend partly upon their piracies, to be ſupplied with neceſſary utenſils and manufactures, ſo that their exports conſiſt chiefly of leather, fine mats, embroidered handkerchiefs, ſword knots and carpets, which are cheaper and ſofter than thoſe of Turkey, though not ſo good in other reſpects. As they leave almoſt all their commercial affairs to the Jews and Chriſtians ſettled among them, the latter have eſtabliſhed ſilk and linen works, which ſupply the higher ranks of their own ſubjects. They have no ſhips that, properly ſpeaking, are employed in commerce; ſo that the French and Engliſh carry on the greateſt part of their trade. Their exports, beſides thoſe

already mentioned, conſiſt in elephants teeth, oſtrich feathers, copper, tin, wool, hides, honey, wax, dates, raiſins, olives, almonds, gum arabic, and ſandrac. The inhabitants of Morocco are likewiſe ſaid to carry on a conſiderable trade by caravans to Mecca, Medina, and ſome inland parts of Africa, from whence they bring back vaſt numbers of negroes, who ſerve in their armies, and are ſlaves in their houſes and fields.

In return for their exports, the Europeans furniſh them with timber, artillery of all kinds, gunpowder, and whatever they want, either in their public or private capacities, the particulars of which are too many to ſpecify. The duties paid by the Engliſh in the ports of Morocco, are but half thoſe paid by other Europeans. It is a general obſervation that no nation is fond of trading with theſe ſtates, not only on account of their capricious deſpotiſm, but the villainy of their individuals, both natives and Jews, who take all opportunities of cheating, and when detected, are ſeldom puniſhed.

It has often been thought ſurprizing, that the Chriſtian powers ſhould ſuffer their marine to be inſulted by thoſe barbarians, who take the ſhips of all nations with whom they are at peace, or rather, who do not pay them a ſubſidy either in money or commodities. We cannot account for this forbearance otherwiſe, than by ſuppoſing, firſt, that a breach with them might provoke the Porte, who pretends to be their lord paramount; ſecondly, that no Chriſtian power would be fond of ſeeing Algiers, and the reſt of that coaſt, in poſſeſſion of another; and, thirdly, that nothing could be got by a bombardment of any of their towns, as the inhabitants would inſtantly carry their effects into their deſarts and mountains, ſo that the benefit, reſulting from the conqueſt, muſt be tedious and precarious.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] In Morocco, government cannot be ſaid to exiſt. The emperors have for ſome ages been parties, judges, and even executioners, with their own hands, in all criminal matters, nor is their brutality more incredible than the ſubmiſſion with which their ſubjects bear it. In abſence of the emperor, every military officer has the power of life and death in his hand, and it is ſeldom that they mind the form of a judicial proceeding. Some veſtiges, however, of the califate government ſtill continue, for in places where no military officer reſides, the muſti or high prieſt is the fountain of all juſtice, and under him the cadis, or civil officers, who act as our juſtices of the peace. Though the emperor of Morocco is not immediately ſubject to the Porte, yet he acknowledges the grand ſignior to be his

ſuperior, and he pays him a diſtant allegiance as the chief repreſentative of Mahomet. What I have ſaid of Morocco is applicable to Fez, both kingdoms being now under one emperor.

Though Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, have each of them a Turkiſh paſha or dey, who governs in the name of the grand ſignior, yet very little regard is paid by his ferocious ſubjects, to his authority. He cannot even be ſaid to be nominated by the Porte. When a vacancy of the government happens, which it commonly does by murder, every ſoldier in the army has a vote in chuſing the ſucceeding dey; and though the election is often attended with blood-ſhed, yet it is no ſooner fixed than he is chearfully recognized and obeyed. It is true, he muſt be confirmed by the Porte, but that is ſeldom refuſed, as the divan is no ſtranger to the diſpoſitions of the people. The power of the dey is deſpotic, and the income of the dey of Algiers, amounts to about 150,000 l. a year, without greatly oppreſſing the ſubjects, who are very tenacious of their property. Theſe deys pay ſlight annual tributes to the Porte. When the grand ſignior is at war with a Chriſtian power, he requires their aſſiſtance, as he does that of the king of Morocco, but he is obeyed only as they think proper. Subordinate to the deys are officers, both military and civil; and in all matters of importance, the dey is expected to take the advice of a common council, which conſiſts of thirty paſhas. Theſe paſhas ſeldom fail of forming parties, among the ſoldiers, againſt the reigning dey, whom they make no ſcruple of aſſaſſinating, even in council, and the ſtrongeſt candidate then fills his place. Sometimes he is depoſed; ſometimes, though but very ſeldom, he reſigns his authority to ſave his life, and it is ſeldom he dies a natural death upon the throne. The authority of the dey is unlimited, but an unſucceſsful expedition, or too pacific a conduct ſeldom fails to put an end to his life and government.

REVENUES.] I have already mentioned thoſe of Algiers, but they are now ſaid to be exceeded by Tunis. They conſiſt of a certain proportion of the prizes taken from Chriſtians, a ſmall capitation tax, and the cuſtoms paid by the Engliſh, French, and other nations, who are ſuffered to trade with thoſe ſtates. As to the king of Morocco, we can form no idea of his revenues, becauſe none of his ſubjects can be ſaid to poſſeſs any property. From the manner of his living, his attendance and appearance, we may conclude he does not abound in riches. The ranſoms of Chriſtian ſlaves are his perquiſites. He ſometimes ſhares in the veſſels of the other ſtates, which entitles him to part of their prizes. He claims a tenth

tenth of the goods of his Mahometan subjects, and six crowns a year from every Jew merchant. He has likewise considerable profits in the Negroland, and other caravans, especially the slave trade towards the south. It is thought that the whole of his ordinary revenue in money, does not exceed 165,000 l. a year.

MILITARY STRENGTH AT SEA AND LAND. } By the best accounts we have received, the king of Morocco can bring to the field 100,000 men; but the strength of his army consists of cavalry mounted by his negro slaves. Those wretches are brought young to Morocco, know no other state but servitude, and no other master but that king, and prove the firmest support of his tyranny. About the year 1727, all the naval force of Morocco consisted only of three small ships, which lay at Sallee, and being full of men, sometimes brought in prizes. The Algerines maintain about 6500 foot, consisting of Turks, and cologlies, or the sons of soldiers. Part of them serve as marines on board their vessels. About 1000 of them do garrison duty, and part are employed in fomenting differences among the neighbouring Arab princes. Besides these, the dey can bring 2000 Moorish horse to the field, but as they are enemies to the Turks, they are little trusted. Those troops are under excellent discipline, and the deys of all the other Barbary states, keep up a force in proportion to their abilities, so that a few years ago, they refused to send any tribute to the Turkish emperor, who seems to be satisfied with the shadow of obedience which they pay him.

It is very remarkable, that though the Carthaginians, who inhabited this very country of Barbary, had greater fleets, and a more extensive commerce than any other nation, or than all the people upon the face of the earth, when that state flourished, the present inhabitants have scarce any merchant ships belonging to them, nor indeed any other than what Sallee, Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli fit out for piracy; which are but few and small, and some years ago did not exceed six ships from thirty-six to fifty guns. The admiral's ship belongs to the government, the other captains are appointed by private owners, but subject to military law. With such a contemptible fleet, these infidels not only harrass the nations of Europe, but oblige them to pay a kind of tribute by way of presents.

HISTORY.] There perhaps is no problem in history so unaccountable as the decadence of the splendor, power, and glory of the states of Barbary, which, when Rome was mistress of the world, formed the fairest jewels in the imperial diadem. It was not till the seventh century that, after these

ſtates had been by turns in poſſeſſion of the Vandals and the Greek emperors, the califs or Saracens of Bagdat conquered them, and from thence became maſters of almoſt all Spain, from whence their poſterity was totally driven about the year 1492, when the exiles ſettled among their friends and countrymen on the Barbary coaſt. This naturally begot a perpetual war between them and the Spaniards, who preſſed them ſo hard, that they called to their aſſiſtance the two famous brothers Barbaroſſa, who were admirals of the Turkiſh fleet, and who after breaking the Spaniſh yoke, impoſed upon the inhabitants of all thoſe ſtates (excepting Morocco) their own. Some attempts were made by the emperor Charles V. to reduce Algiers and Tunis, but they were unſucceſsful; and, as we have already obſerved, the inhabitants have in fact ſhaken off the Turkiſh yoke likewiſe.

The emperors or kings of Morocco, are the ſucceſſors of thoſe ſovereigns of that country who were called xeriffs, and whoſe powers reſembled that of the califat of the Saracens. They have been in general a ſet of bloody tyrants, though they have had among them ſome able princes, particularly Muley Moluc, who defeated and killed don Sebaſtian, king of Portugal. They have lived in almoſt a continued ſtate of warfare with the kings of Spain and other Chriſtian princes ever ſince; nor does the crown of Great-Britain ſometimes diſdain, as in the year 1769, to purchaſe their friendſhip with preſents *.

Of AFRICA, from the Tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good-Hope. *See the Table and Map.*

THIS immenſe territory is, comparatively ſpeaking, very little known; there is no traveller that has penetrated into the interior parts, ſo that we are ignorant not only of the bounds but even of the names of ſeveral inland countries. In many material circumſtances, the inhabitants of this extenſive continent agree with each other. If we except the people of Abyſſinia, who are tawny, and profeſs a mixture of Chriſtianity, Judaiſm and Paganiſm, they are all of a black complexion: in their religion, except on the ſea coaſts, which have been viſited and ſettled by ſtrangers, they are pagans: and

* The inhabitants of the Barbary coaſt have been long known by the name of Moors, becauſe the Saracens firſt entered Europe from Mauritania in Africa, the country of the Moors.

and the form of government is every where monarchical. Few princes, however, poſſeſs a very extenſive juriſdiction; for as the natives of this part of Africa are groſsly ignorant in all the arts of utility or refinement, they are little acquainted with one another; and generally united in ſmall ſocieties, each governed by its own prince. In Abyſſinia indeed, as well as in Congo, Loango, and Angola, we are told of powerful monarchs; but on examination, it is found that the authority of theſe princes ſtands on a precarious footing, each tribe or ſeparate body of their ſubjects being under the influence of a petty chieftain of their own, to whoſe commands, however contrary to thoſe of the negaſcha negaſcht, or king of kings, they are always ready to ſubmit. This indeed muſt always be the caſe among rude nations, where the art of governing, like all others, is in a very ſimple and imperfect ſtate. In the ſucceſſion to the throne, force generally prevails over right; and an uncle, a brother, or other collateral relation, is on this account commonly preferred to the deſcendants, whether male or female.

The fertility of a country ſo prodigiouſly extenſive, might be ſuppoſed more various than we find it is; in fact, there is no medium in this part of Africa with regard to the advantages of ſoil; it is either perfectly barren, or extremely fertile: this ariſes from the intenſe heat of the ſun, which, where it meets with ſufficient moiſture, produces the utmoſt luxuriancy; and in thoſe countries where there are few rivers, reduces the ſurface of the earth to a barren ſand. Of this ſort are the countries of Anian and Zaara, which, for want of water, and conſequently of all other neceſſaries, are reduced to perfect deſerts, as the name of the latter denotes. In thoſe countries, on the other hand, where there is plenty of water, and particularly where the rivers overflow the land part of the year, as in Abyſſinia, the productions of nature, both of the animal and vegetable kinds, are found in the higheſt perfection and greateſt abundance. The countries of Mandingo, Ethiopia, Congo, Angola, Batua, Truticui, Monomotapa, Caſati, and Mehenemugi, are extremely rich in gold and ſilver. The baſer metals likewiſe are found in theſe and many other parts of Africa. But the perſons of the natives make the moſt conſiderable article in the produce and traffic of this miſerable quarter of the globe. On the Guinea or weſtern coaſt, the Engliſh trade to James Fort, and other ſettlements near the river Gambia, where they exchange their woollen and linen manufactures, their hard ware and ſpirituous liquors, for the perſons of the natives. Among the Negroes, a man's wealth conſiſts in the number of his family, whom he ſells like ſo many

many cattle, and often at an inferior price. Gold and ivory, next to the ſlave trade, form the principal branches of African commerce. Theſe are carried on from the ſame coaſt where the Dutch and French, as well as Engliſh, have their ſettlements for this purpoſe. The Portugueſe are in poſſeſſion of the eaſt and weſt coaſt of Africa, from the Tropic of Capricorn to the Equator; which immenſe tract they became maſters of by their ſucceſſive attempts and happy diſcovery and navigation of the Cape of Good Hope. From the coaſt of Zanguebar, on the eaſtern ſide, they trade not only for the articles abovementioned, but likewiſe for ſeveral others, as ſenna, aloes, civet, ambergris, and frankincenſe. The Dutch have ſettlements towards the ſouthern parts of the continent, in the country called Caffraria, or the land of the Hottentots, where their ſhips bound for India uſually put in, and trade with the natives for their cattle, in exchange for which they give them ſpirituous liquors.

HISTORY.] The hiſtory of this continent is little known, and probably affords no materials which deſerve to render it more ſo. We know from the antients, who ſailed a conſiderable way round the coaſts, that the inhabitants were in the ſame rude ſituation near 2000 years ago in which they are in at preſent, that is, they had nothing of humanity about them but the form. This may either be accounted for by ſuppoſing that nature has placed ſome inſuperable barrier between the natives of this diviſion of Africa and the inhabitants of Europe, or that the former, being ſo long accuſtomed to a ſavage manner of life, and degenerating from one age to another, at length became altogether incapable of making any progreſs in civility or ſcience. It is very certain that all the attempts of the Europeans, particularly of the Dutch at the Cape of Good Hope, have been hitherto ineffectual for making the leaſt impreſſion on theſe ſavage mortals, or giving them the leaſt inclination or even idea of the European manner of life.

AFRICAN ISLANDS.

OF the African iſlands, ſome lie in the Eaſtern or Indian Ocean, and ſome in the Weſtern or Atlantic. We ſhall begin with thoſe in the Indian Ocean, the chief of which are Zocotra, Babelmandel, Madagaſcar, the Comora Iſlands, Bourbon, and Mauritius. *See the Map.*

ZOCOTRA. This iſland is ſituated in eaſt lon. 53, north lat. 12, thirty leagues eaſt of Cape Gardefoi, on the continent of Africa; it is eighty miles long and fifty-four broad, and has

has two good harbours, where the European ſhips uſed formerly to put in when they loſt their paſſage to India. It is a populous plentiful country, yielding moſt of the fruits and plants that are uſually found within the tropics, together with frankincenſe, gum-tragacanth, and aloes. The inhabitants are Mahometans, of Arab extraction, and are under the government of a prince who is probably tributary to the Porte.

BABELMANDEL. The iſland of Babelmandel gives name to the ſtraits at the entrance of the Red-Sea, where it is ſituated in eaſt lon. 44-30, north lat. 12, about four miles both from the Arabian and Abyſſinian ſhores. The Abyſſinians or Ethiopians, and the Arabians, formerly contended with great fury for the poſſeſſion of this iſland, as it commands the entrance into the South-Sea, and preſerves a communication with the ocean. This ſtrait was formerly the only paſſage through which the commodities of India found their way to Europe; but ſince the diſcovery of the Cape of Good Hope the trade by the Red-Sea is of little importance. The iſland is of little value, being a barren ſandy ſpot of earth not five miles round.

COMORA. Theſe iſlands are ſituated between 41 and 46 eaſt lon. and between 10 and 14 ſouth lat. at an equal diſtance from Madagaſcar and the continent of Africa. Joanna, the chief, is about 30 miles long and 15 broad, and affords plenty of proviſions, and ſuch fruits as are produced between the tropics. Eaſt-India ſhips, bound to Bombay, uſually touch here for refreſhments. The inhabitants are Negroes of the Mahometan perſuaſion, and entertain our ſeamen with great humanity.

MADAGASCAR. This is the largeſt of the African iſlands, and is ſituated between 43 and 51 deg. eaſt lon. and between 10 and 26 ſouth lat. 300 miles ſouth-eaſt of the continent of Africa; it being near 1000 miles in length from north to ſouth; and generally between 2 and 300 miles broad. The ſea rolls with great rapidity, and is exceeding rough between this iſland and the continent of the Cape of Good Hope, forming a channel or paſſage, through which all European ſhips, in their voyage to and from India, generally ſail, unleſs prevented by ſtorms.

Madagaſcar is a pleaſant, deſirable, and fertile country, abounding in ſugar, honey, vines, fruit trees, vegetables, valuable gums, corn, cattle, fowls, precious ſtones, iron, ſome ſilver, copper, ſteel, and tin. It affords an agreeable variety of hills, vallies, woods, and champaign; watered with

numerous rivers, and well ſtored with fiſh. The air is generally temperate, and ſaid to be very healthy, though in a hot climate. The inhabitants are of different complexions and religions; ſome white, ſome Negroes, ſome Mahometans, ſome pagans. The whites and thoſe of a tawny complexion who inhabit the coaſts, are deſcended from the Arabs, as is evident from their language, and their religious rites; but here are no moſques, temples, nor any ſtated worſhip, except that they offer ſacrifice of beaſts on particular occaſions; as when ſick, when they plant yams, or rice, when they hold their aſſemblies, circumciſe their children, declare war, enter into new built houſes, or bury their dead. Many of them obſerve the Jew ſabbath, and give ſome account of the ſacred hiſtory, the creation and fall of man, as alſo of Noah, Abraham, Moſes, and David; from whence it is conjectured they are deſcended of Jews who formerly ſettled here, though none knows how or when. This iſland was diſcovered by the Portugueſe, and the French took poſſeſſion of it in 1642; but the people diſliking their government, they were driven out in 1651; ſince which the natives have had the ſole poſſeſſion of the iſland, under a number of petty princes, who make war upon one another for ſlaves and plunder. It is thought the French will again attempt to eſtabliſh themſelves here, if the other maritime powers do not interfere.

MAURITIUS. Maurice, or Mauritius, was ſo called by the Dutch, who firſt touched here in 1598, in honour of prince Maurice their ſtadtholder. It is ſituated in eaſt lon. 56, ſouth lat. 20. about 400 miles eaſt of Madagaſcar. It is of an oval form, about 150 miles in circumference, with a fine harbour, capable of holding fifty large ſhips, ſecure againſt any wind that blows, and 100 fathoms deep at the entrance. The climate is extremely healthy and pleaſant. The mountains, of which there are many, and ſome ſo high that their tops are covered with ſnow, produce the beſt ebony in the world, beſides various other kinds of valuable wood, two of which greatly reſemble ebony in quality; one red, the other yellow as wax. The iſland is watered with ſeveral pleaſant rivers well ſtocked with fiſh; and though the ſoil is none of the moſt fruitful, yields plenty of tobacco, rice, fruit, and feeds a great number of cattle, deer, goats, and ſheep. It was formerly ſubject to the Dutch, but is now in the poſſeſſion of the French.

BOURBON. The Iſle of Bourbon is ſituated in eaſt lon. 54, ſouth lat. 21, about 300 miles eaſt of Madagaſcar, and is about 90 miles round. There are many good roads for ſhipping

ping round Bourbon, particularly on the north and ſouth ſides; but hardly a ſingle harbour where ſhips can ride ſecure againſt thoſe hurricanes which blow during the monſoons. Indeed the coaſt is ſo ſurrounded with blind rocks, ſunk a few feet below the water, that coaſting along ſhore is at all times dangerous. On the ſouthern extremity is a volcano, which continually throws out flames, ſmoke, and ſulphur, wi h a hideous roaring noiſe, terrible in the night to mariners. The climate here, though extremely hot, is healthy, being refreſhed with cooling gales, that blow morning and evening from the ſea and land: ſometimes, however, terrible hurricanes ſhake the whole iſland almoſt to its foundation; but generally without any other bad conſequence than frightening the inhabitants. The iſland abounds in brooks and ſprings, and in fruits, graſs, and cattle, with excellent tobacco (which the French have planted there) aloes, white pepper, ebony, palm, and other kinds of wood, and fruit trees. Many of the trees yield odoriferous gums and raiſins, particularly benzoin of an excellent ſort and in great plenty. The rivers are well ſtocked with fiſh, the coaſt with land and ſea tortoiſes, and every part of the country with horned cattle, as well as hogs and goats. Ambergris, coral, and the moſt beautiful ſhells, are found upon the ſhore. The woods are full of turtle doves, paroquets, pigeons, and a great variety of other birds, beautiful to the eye and pleaſant to the palate. The French firſt ſettled here in the year 1672, after they were drove from the iſland of Madagaſcar. They have now ſome conſiderable towns in the iſland, with a governor; and here their Eaſt-India ſhips touch and take in refreſhments.

There are a great many more ſmall iſlands about Madagaſcar, and on the eaſtern coaſt of Africa, laid down in maps, but no where deſcribed.

Leaving therefore the eaſtern world and the Indies, we now turn round the Cape of Good-Hope, which opens to our view the Atlantic, an immenſe ocean, lying between the two grand diviſions of the globe, having Europe, Aſia, and Africa, or the old world, on the eaſt; and America, or the new world, on the weſt; towards which diviſion we now ſteer our courſe, touching in our way at the following iſlands upon the African coaſt, that have not yet been deſcribed, viz. St. Helena, Aſcenſion, St. Matthew, St. Thomas, &c. Goree, Cape Verd, the Canary and Madeira iſlands. *See the Map.*

ST. HELENA. The firſt iſland on this ſide the Cape is St. Helena, ſituated in weſt lon. 6-4, ſouth lat. 16, being 1200 miles weſt of the continent of Africa, and 1800 eaſt of South

South America. The iſland is a rock about 21 miles in circumference, very high and very ſteep, and only acceſſible at the landing-place, in a ſmall valley at the eaſt ſide of it, which is defended by batteries of guns planted level with the water; and as the waves are perpetually daſhing on the ſhore, it is generally difficult landing even here. There is no other anchorage about the iſland but at Chapel Vally Bay; and as the wind always blows from the ſouth-eaſt, if a ſhip overſhoots the iſland ever ſo little, ſhe cannot recover it again. The Engliſh plantations here afford potatoes and yams, with figs, plantains, bananas, grapes, kidney-beans, and Indian corn; of the laſt, however, moſt part is deſtroyed by the rats, which harbour in the rocks, and cannot be deſtroyed; ſo that the flour they uſe is almoſt wholly imported from England; and in times of ſcarcity they generally eat yams and potatoes inſtead of bread. Though the iſland appears on every ſide a hard barren rock, yet it is agreeably diverſified with hills and plains, adorned with plantations of fruit-trees and garden-ſtuff. They have great plenty of hogs, bullocks, poultry, ducks, geeſe, and turkeys, with which they ſupply the ſailors, taking in exchange ſhirts, drawers, or any light cloths, pieces of callico, ſilks, muſlins, arrack, ſugar, &c.

St. Helena is ſaid to have been firſt diſcovered by the Portugueſe on the feſtival of the empreſs, Helena, mother of the emperor Conſtantine the Great, whoſe name it ſtill bears. It does not appear that the Portugueſe ever planted a colony here: and the Engliſh Eaſt-India company took poſſeſſion of it in 1600, and held it without interruption till the year 1673, when the Dutch took it by ſurprize. However, the Engliſh, under the command of captain Munden, recovered it again within the ſpace of a year, and at the ſame time took three Dutch Eaſt-India ſhips that lay in the road. There are about 200 families in the iſland, moſt of them deſcended from Engliſh parents. The Eaſt-India ſhips take in water and freſh proviſions here, in their way home; but the iſland is ſo ſmall, and the wind ſo much againſt them outward bound, that they very ſeldom ſee it then.

The company's affairs are here managed by a governor, deputy-governor, and ſtore-keeper, who have ſtanding ſalaries allowed by the company, beſides a public table well furniſhed, to which all commanders, maſters of ſhips, and principal paſſengers are welcome.

ASCENSION. This iſland is ſituated under the 7th degree ſouth lat. 600 miles north-weſt of St. Helena: it received its name from its being diſcovered by the Portugueſe on Aſcenſion-day;

ſion-day; and is a mountainous barren iſland, about 20 mile round, and uninhabited; but has a ſafe convenient harbour where the Eaſt-India ſhips generally touch to furniſh themſelves with turtles or tortoiſes, which are very plentiful here, and vaſtly large, ſome of them weighing above an hundred pounds each. The ſailors going aſhore in the night time, frequently turn two or three hundred of them on their backs before morning; and are ſometimes ſo cruel, as to turn many more than they uſe, leaving them to die on the ſhore.

ST. MATTHEW. This is a ſmall iſland, lying in 6-1 weſt lon. and 1-30 ſouth lat. 300 miles to the north-eaſt of Aſcenſion, and was alſo diſcovered by the Portugueſe, who planted and kept poſſeſſion of it for ſome time; but afterwards deſerting it, this iſland now remains uninhabited, having little to invite other nations to ſettle there except a ſmall lake of freſh water.

The four following iſlands, viz. ST. THOMAS, ANABOA, PRINCES ISLAND, and FERNANDO PO, are ſituated in the gulph of Guinea, between Congo and Benin; all of them were diſcovered by the Portugueſe, and are ſtill in the poſſeſſion of that nation, and furniſh ſhipping with freſh water and proviſions as they paſs by.

CAPE VERD ISLANDS. Theſe iſlands are ſo called from a cape of that name on the African coaſt, near the river Gambia, over againſt which they lie, at the diſtance of 300 miles, between 23 and 26 deg. weſt lon. and 14 and 18 deg. north lat. They were diſcovered in the year 1460, by the Portugueſe, and are about 20 in number; but ſome of them, being only barren uninhabited rocks, are not worth notice. St. Jago, Bravo, Fago, Mayo, Bonaviſta, Sal, St. Nicholas, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Santa Cruz, and St. Antonio, are the moſt conſiderable, and are ſubject to the Portugueſe. The air, generally ſpeaking, is very hot, and in ſome of them very unwholeſome. They are inhabited by Europeans, or the deſcendants of Europeans, and Negroes.

ST. JAGO, where the Portugueſe viceroy reſides, is the moſt fruitful, beſt inhabited, and largeſt of them all, being 150 miles in circumference; yet it is mountainous, and has much barren land in it. Its produce is ſugar, cotton, ſome wine, Indian corn, cocoa-nuts, oranges, and other tropical fruits; plenty of roots, garden-ſtuffs, and they have plenty of hogs and poultry, and ſome of the prettieſt green monkies, with black faces, that are to be met with any where. Baya, ſituated on the eaſt ſide, has a good port, and is ſeldom without

out ſhips, thoſe outward bound to Guinea or the Eaſt-Indies, from England, Holland, and France, often touching here for water and refreſhments.

In the iſland of Mayo or May, immenſe quantities of ſalt is made by the heat of the ſun from the ſea water, which, at ſpring tides, is received into a ſort of pan, formed by a ſand-bank, which runs along the coaſt for two or three miles. Here the Engliſh drive a conſiderable trade for ſalt, and have commonly a man of war to guard the veſſels that come to load with it, which in ſome years amount to a hundred or more. The ſalt coſts nothing, except for raking it together, wheeling it out of the pond, and carrying it on aſſes to the boats, which is done at a very cheap rate. Several of our ſhips come hither for a freight of aſſes, which they carry to Barbadoes and other Britiſh plantations. The inhabitants of this iſland, even the governor and prieſts, are all Negroes, and ſpeak the Portugueſe language. The Negro governor expects a ſmall preſent from every commander that loads ſalt, and is pleaſed to be invited aboard their ſhips. The ſea water is ſo exceſſive clear on this coaſt, that an Engliſh ſailor who dropped his watch, perceived it at the bottom, though many fathoms deep, and had it brought up by one of the natives, who are in general expert at diving.

The iſland of Fogo is remarkable for being a volcano, continually ſending up ſulphureous exhalations; and ſometimes the flame breaks out like Ætna, in a terrible manner, throwing out pumice ſtones that annoy all the adjacent parts.

GOREE is ſituated within cannon-ſhot of Cape Verd, N. lat. 14-43, W. lon. 17-20. and was ſo called by the Dutch from an iſland and town of the ſame name in Holland. It is a ſmall ſpot not exceeding two miles in circumference, but its importance ariſes from its ſituation for trade ſo near Cape Verd, and has been therefore a bone of contention between European nations. It was firſt poſſeſſed by the Dutch, from whom in 1663 it was taken by the Engliſh, but in 1665 it was retaken by the Dutch, and in 1677 ſubdued by the French, in whoſe poſſeſſion it remained till the year 1759, when the Britiſh arms were every where triumphant, and it was reduced by commodore Keppel, but reſtored to the French at the treaty of peace in 1763.

CANARIES. The Canaries, antiently called the Fortunate Iſlands, are ſeven in number, and ſituated between 12 and 19 deg. weſt lon. and between 27 and 29 deg. north lat. about 150 miles ſouth-weſt of Morocco. Their particular names are, Palma, Hiero, Gomera, Teneriffe, Grand Canaria, Fuertu-

Fuertuventura, and Langarote. Theſe iſlands enjoy a pure temperate air, and abound in the moſt delicious fruits, eſpecially grapes, which produce thoſe rich wines that obtain the name of the Canary, whereof the greateſt part is exported to England, which in time of peace is computed at ten thouſand hogſheads annually. The Canaries abound with thoſe little beautiful birds that bear their name, and are now ſo common and ſo much admired in Europe; but their wild notes in their native land far excel thoſe in a cage or foreign clime.

Grand Canary, which communicates its name to the whole, is about 150 miles in circumference, and ſo extremely fertile, as to produce two harveſts in the year. Teneriffe, the largeſt of theſe iſlands next to that of the Grand Canary, is about 120 miles round; a fertile country, abounding in corn, wine, and oil; though it is pretty much encumbered with mountains, particularly the Peak, of which Capt. Glaſs obſerves, that in coming in with this iſland, in clear weather, the Peak may be eaſily diſcerned at 120 miles diſtance, and in ſailing from it at 150. The Peak is an aſcent in the form of a ſugar-loaf, about fifteen miles in circumference, and according to the account of Sprat, biſhop of Rocheſter, publiſhed in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, near three miles perpendicular. This mountain is a volcano, and ſometimes throws out ſuch quantities of ſulphur and melted ore, as to convert the richeſt lands into barren deſerts. Theſe iſlands were firſt diſcovered and planted by the Carthaginians; but the Romans deſtroying that ſtate, put a ſtop to the navigation on the weſt coaſt of Africa, and the Canaries lay concealed from the reſt of the world, until they were again diſcovered by the Spaniards in the year 1405, to whom they ſtill belong. It is remarkable, that though the natives reſembled the Africans in their ſtature and complexion when the Spaniards firſt came among them, their language was different from that ſpoken on the continent; they retained none of their cuſtoms, were maſters of no ſcience, and did not know there was any country in the world beſides their own.

MADEIRAS. The three iſlands called the Madeiras, are ſituated, according to the author of Anſon's voyage, in a fine climate in 32-27 north lat. and from 18-30 to 19-30 weſt lon. about 100 miles north of the Canaries, and as many weſt of Sallee, in Morocco. The largeſt, from which the reſt derive the general name of Madeiras, or rather Mattera, on account of its being formerly almoſt covered with wood, is about 75 miles long, 60 broad, and 180 in circumference. It is compoſed of one continued hill, of a conſiderable height, ex-

tending from eaſt to weſt; the declivity of which, on the ſouth ſide, is cultivated and interſperſed with vineyards; and in the midſt of this ſlope the merchants have fixed their country ſeats, which form a very agreeable proſpect. There is but one conſiderable town in the whole iſland, which is named Fonchial, ſeated on the ſouth part of the iſland, at the bottom of a large bay; towards the ſea, it is defended by a high wall, with a battery of cannon, and is the only place where it is poſſible for a boat to land, and even here the beach is covered with large ſtones, and a violent ſurf continually beats upon it.

Though this iſland ſeems to have been known to the antients, yet it lay concealed for many generations, and was at length diſcovered by the Portugueſe in 1519: but others aſſert that it was firſt diſcovered by an Engliſhman, in the year 1344. Be that as it will, the Portugueſe took poſſeſſion of it, and are ſtill almoſt the only people who inhabit it. The Portugueſe, at their firſt landing, finding it little better than a thick foreſt, rendered the ground capable of cultivation by ſetting fire to this wood; and it is now very fertile, producing in great abundance the richeſt wine, ſugar, the moſt delicate fruits, eſpecially oranges, lemons, and pomegranates; together with corn, honey, and wax: it abounds alſo with boars and other wild beaſts, and with all ſorts of fowls, beſides numerous groves of cedar trees, and thoſe that yield dragons blood, maſtic, and other gums. The inhabitants of this iſle make the beſt ſweet-meats in the world, and ſucceed wonderfully in preſerving citrons and oranges, and in making marmalade and perfumed paſtes, which exceed thoſe of Genoa. The ſugar they make is extremel beautiful, and ſmells naturally of violets. This indeed is ſaid to be the firſt place in the weſt, where that manufacture was ſet on foot, and from thence was carried to the Brazils in America. The Portugueſe not finding it ſo profitable as at firſt, have pulled up the greateſt part of their ſugar canes, and planted vineyards in their ſtead, which produce ſeveral ſorts of excellent wine, particularly that which bears the name of the iſland, malmſey, and tent; of all which the inhabitants make and ſell prodigious quantities. No leſs than 20,000 hogſheads of Madeira, it is ſaid, are yearly exported, the greateſt part to the Weſt-Indies, eſpecially to Barbadoes, the Madeira wine not only enduring a hot climate better than any other, but even being improved when expoſed to the ſun in barrels after the bung is taken out. It is ſaid no venomous animal can live here. Of the two other iſlands, one is called Port Santo, which lies at a ſmall diſtance from Madeira, is about eight miles in compaſs, and extremely

extremely fertile. It has very good harbours, where ſhips may ride with ſafety againſt all winds, except the ſouth-weſt; and is frequented by Indiamen outward and homeward bound. The other iſland is an inconſiderable barren rock.

AZORES. Leaving the Madeiras, with which we cloſe the account of Africa, we continue our courſe weſtward through this immenſe ocean, which brings us to the Azores, or, as they are called, the Weſtern Iſlands, that are ſituated between 25 and 32 deg. weſt lon. and between 37 and 40 north lat. 900 miles weſt of Portugal, and as many eaſt of Newfoundland, lying almoſt in the mid-way between Europe and America. They are nine in number, and are named Santa Maria, St. Miguel or St. Michael, Tercera, St. George, Gracioſa, Fayal, Pico, Flores, and Corvo. They were diſcovered by the Portugueſe, to whom they ſtill belong, and were called in general the Azores, from the great number of hawks and falcons found among them. All theſe iſlands enjoy a very clear and ſerene ſky, with a ſalubrious air; but are expoſed to violent earthquakes, from which they have frequently ſuffered; and alſo by the inundations of ſurrounding waves. They are, however, extremely fertile in corn, wine, and a variety of fruits, alſo cattle, fowl, and fiſh.

It is remarkable that no poiſonous or noxious animal breeds on the Azores, and if carried thither will expire in a few hours.

St. Michael, which is the largeſt, being near 100 miles in circumference, and containing 50,000 inhabitants, was twice invaded and plundered by the Engliſh in the reign of queen Elizabeth. Tercera is the moſt important of theſe iſlands, on account of its harbour, which is ſpacious, and has good anchorage, but is expoſed to the ſouth-eaſt winds. Its capital town, Angra, contains a cathedral and five churches, and is the reſidence of the governor of theſe iſlands, as well as the biſhop.

AMERICA.

WE are now to treat of a country of vaſt extent and fertility, and which, though little cultivated by the hand of art, owes in many reſpects more to that of nature than any other diviſion of the globe. The particular circumſtances of this country require that we ſhould in ſome meaſure vary our plan, and, before deſcribing its preſent ſtate, afford ſuch information with regard to its diſcovery, as is moſt neceſſary for ſatisfying our readers.

Towards the cloſe of the 15th century, Venice and Genoa were the only powers in Europe who owed their ſupport to commerce. An interference of intereſts inſpired a mutual rivalſhip; but in traffic Venice was much ſuperior. She engroſſed the whole commerce of India, then, and indeed always, the moſt valuable in the world, but hitherto intirely carried on through the inland parts of Aſia, or by the way of Egypt and the Red-Sea. In this ſtate of affairs, Columbus, a native of Genoa, whoſe knowledge of the true figure of the earth, however attained, was much ſuperior to the general notions of the age in which he lived, conceived a project of ſailing to the Indies by a bold and unknown rout, and of opening to his country a new ſource of opulence and power. But this propoſal of ſailing weſtward to the Indies was rejected by the Genoeſe as chimerical, and the principles on which it was founded were condemned as abſurd. Stung with diſappointment and indignation, Columbus retired from his country, laid his ſcheme before the court of France, where his reception was ſtill more mortifying, and where, according to the practice of that people, he was laughed at and ridiculed. Henry VII. of England was his next reſort; but the cautious politics of that prince were the moſt oppoſite imaginable to a great but uncertain deſign. In Portugal, where the ſpirit of adventure and diſcovery about this time began to operate, he had reaſon to expect better ſucceſs. But the Portugueſe contented themſelves with creeping along the coaſt of Africa, and diſcovering one cape after another; they had no notion of venturing boldly into the open ſea, and of riſking the whole at once. Such repeated diſappointments would have broken the ſpirit of any man but Columbus. The expedition required expence, and he had nothing to defray it. His mind, however, ſtill remained firm; he became the more enamoured of his deſign the more difficulty he found in accompliſhing it, and he was inſpired with that noble enthuſiaſm which always animates an adventrous

adventrous and original genius. Spain was now his only reſource, and there, after eight years attendance, he ſucceeded through the intereſt of a woman. This was the celebrated queen Iſabella, who raiſed money upon her jewels to defray the expence of his expedition and to do honour to her ſex. Columbus now ſet ſail, anno 1492, with a fleet of three ſhips, upon the moſt adventrous attempt ever undertaken by man, and in the fate of which the inhabitants of two worlds were intereſted. In this voyage he had a thouſand difficulties to contend with; the moſt ſtriking was the variation of the compaſs, then firſt obſerved, and which ſeemed to threaten that the laws of nature were altered on an unknown ocean, and the only guide he had left was ready to forſake him. His ſailors, always diſcontented, now broke out into open mutiny, threatening to throw him overboard, and inſiſted on their return. But the firmneſs of the commander, and much more the diſcovery of land, after a voyage of 33 days, put an end to the commotion. Columbus firſt landed on one of the Bahama iſlands, but there, to his ſurprize and ſorrow, diſcovered, from the poverty of the inhabitants, that theſe could not be the Indies he was in queſt of. In ſteering ſouthward, however, he found the iſland called Hiſpaniola, abounding in all the neceſſaries of life, inhabited by a humane and hoſpitable people, and what was of ſtill greater conſequence, as it inſured his favourable reception at home, promiſing, from ſome ſamples he received, conſiderable quantities of gold. This iſland therefore he propoſed to make the centre of his diſcoveries: and having left upon it a few of his companions, as the ground-work of a colony, returned to Spain to procure the neceſſary reinforcements.

The court was then at Barcelona; Columbus travelled thither from Seville, amidſt the acclamations of the people, attended by ſome of the inhabitants, the gold, the arms, utenſils, and ornaments of the country he had diſcovered. This entry into Barcelona was a ſpecies of triumph more glorious than that of conquerors, more uncommon, and more innocent. In this voyage he had acquired a general knowledge of all the iſlands in that great ſea which divides north and ſouth America; but he had no idea that there was an ocean between him and China. Thus were the Weſt-Indies diſcovered by ſeeking a paſſage to the Eaſt; and even after the diſcovery, ſtill conceived to be a part of the eaſtern hemiſphere. The preſent ſucceſs of Columbus, his former diſappointments, and the glory attending ſo unexpected a diſcovery, rendered the court of Spain as eager to forward his deſigns now, as it had been dilatory before. A fleet of ſeventeen ſail was imme-

diately prepared; all the neceſſaries for conqueſt or diſcovery were embarked; and 1500 men, among whom were ſeveral of high rank and fortune, prepared to accompany Columbus, now appointed governor with the moſt ample authority. It is impoſſible to determine whether the genius of this great man in firſt conceiving the idea of theſe diſcoveries, or his ſagacity in the execution of the plan he had conceived, moſt deſerve our admiration. Inſtead of hurrying from ſea to ſea, and from one iſland to another, which, conſidering the ordinary motives to action among mankind, was naturally to be expected, Columbus, with ſuch a field before him, unable to turn on either hand without finding new objects of his curioſity and his pride, determined rather to turn to the advantage of the court of Spain the diſcoveries he had already made, than to acquire for himſelf the unavailing applauſe of viſiting a number of unknown countries, from which he reaped no other benefit but the pleaſure of ſeeing them. With this view he made for Hiſpaniola, where he eſtabliſhed a colony, and erected forts in the moſt advantageous grounds for ſecuring the dependence of the natives. Having ſpent a conſiderable time in this employment, and laboured for the eſtabliſhing of this colony with as much zeal and aſſiduity as if his views had extended no farther, he next proceeded to aſcertain the importance of his other diſcoveries, and to examine what advantages were moſt likely to be derived from them. He had already touched at Cuba, which, from ſome ſpecimens, ſeemed a rich diſcovery; but whether it was an iſland, or a part of ſome great continent, he was altogether uncertain. To aſcertain this point was the preſent object of his attention. In coaſting along the ſouthern ſhore of Cuba, Columbus was entangled in a multitude of iſlands, of which he reckoned 160 in one day. Theſe iſlands, which were well inhabited, and abounding in all the neceſſaries of life, gave him an opportunity of reflecting on this fertility of nature where the world expected nothing but the barren ocean; he called them *Jardin de la reina*, or the Queen's Garden, in gratitude to his royal benefactreſs, who was always uppermoſt in his memory. In the ſame voyage Jamaica was diſcovered. But to ſo many difficulties was Columbus expoſed, on an unknown ſea, among rocks, ſhelves, and lands, that he returned to Hiſpaniola, without learning any thing more certain with regard to Cuba, the main object of this enterprize.

By the firſt ſucceſs of this great man, the public diffidence was turned into admiration; but by a continuance of the ſame ſucceſs, their admiration degenerated into envy. His enemies in Spain ſet every ſpring in motion againſt him; and there is

no

no difficulty in finding ſpecious grounds of accuſation againſt ſuch as are employed in the execution of an extenſive and complicated plan. An officer was diſpatched from Spain, fitted by his character to act the part of a ſpy and informer, and whoſe preſence plainly demonſtrated to Columbus the neceſſity of returning into Europe, for obviating the objections or calumny of his enemies.

It was not without great difficulty that he was enabled to ſet out on a third expedition, ſtill more famous than any he had hitherto undertaken. He deſigned to ſtand to the ſouthward from the Canaries until he came under the equinoctial line, and then to proceed directly weſtward, that he might diſcover what opening that might afford to India, or what new iſlands, or what continent might reward his labour. In this navigation, after being long buried in a thick fog, and ſuffering numberleſs inconveniencies from the exceſſive heats and rains between the tropics, they were at length favoured by a ſmart gale, and went before it ſeventeen days to the weſtward. At the end of this time, a ſeaman ſaw land, which was an iſland on the coaſt of Guiana, now called Trinidad. Having paſſed this iſland, and two others which lie in the mouth of the great river Oronoco, the admiral was ſurprized with an appearance he had never ſeen before; this was the frightful tumult of the waves, occaſioned by a conflict betwixt the tide of the ſea and the rapid current of the immenſe river Oronoco. But ſailing forward, he plainly diſcovered that they were in freſh water; and judging rightly that it was improbable any iſland ſhould ſupply ſo vaſt a river, he began to ſuſpect he had diſcovered the continent; but when he left the river, and found that the land continued on to the weſtward for a great way, he was convinced of it. Satisfied with this diſcovery, he yielded to the uneaſineſs and diſtreſſes of his crew, and bore away for Hiſpaniola. In the courſe of this diſcovery, Columbus landed at ſeveral places, where in a friendly manner he traded with the inhabitants, and found gold and pearl in tolerable plenty.

About this time the ſpirit of diſcovery ſpread itſelf widely, and many adventurers all over Europe wiſhed to acquire the reputation of Columbus, without poſſeſſing his abilities. The Portugueſe diſcovered Brazil, which makes at preſent the moſt valuable part of their poſſeſſions: Cabot, a native of Briſtol, diſcovered the north-eaſt coaſts, which now compoſe the Britiſh empire in North-America; and Americus Veſpuſius, a merchant of Florence, ſailed to the ſouthern continent of America, and, being a man of addreſs, had the honour of giving his name to half the globe. But no one is now impoſed

on by the name; all the world knows that Columbus was the firſt diſcoverer. The being deprived of the honour of giving name to the new world, was one of the ſmalleſt mortifications to which this great man was compelled to ſubmit. For ſuch were the clamours of his enemies, and the ingratitude of the court of Spain, that after diſcovering the continent, and making ſettlements in the iſlands of America, he was treated like a traitor, and carried over to Europe in irons. He enjoyed, however, the glory of rendering the one half of the world known to the other; a glory ſo much the more precious, as it was untainted by cruelty or plunder, which diſfigured all the exploits of thoſe who came after him, and accompliſhed the execution of his plan. He died at Valladolid, in 1506. The ſucceeding governors of Cuba and Hiſpaniola, endeavoured to purchaſe the ſame advantages by the blood of the natives, which Columbus had obtained by his good ſenſe and humanity. Theſe iſlands contained mines of gold. The Indians only knew where they were placed; and the extreme avarice of the Spaniards, too furious to work by the gentle means of perſuaſion, hurried them to acts of the moſt ſhocking violence and cruelty againſt thoſe unhappy men, who, they believed, concealed from them part of their treaſure. The ſlaughter once begun, they ſet no bounds to their fury; in a few years they depopulated Hiſpaniola, which contained three millions of inhabitants; and Cuba, that had above 600,000. Bartholomew de la Caſas, a witneſs of thoſe barbarous depopulations, ſays that the Spaniards went out with their dogs to hunt after men. The unhappy ſavages, almoſt naked and unarmed, were purſued like deer into the thick of the foreſts, devoured by dogs, killed with gun-ſhot, or ſurprized and burnt in their habitations.

The Spaniards had hitherto only viſited the continent: from what they ſaw with their eyes, or learned by report, they conjectured that this part of the new world would afford a ſtill more valuable conqueſt. Fernando Cortez is diſpatched from Cuba with 600 men, 18 horſes, and a ſmall number of field pieces. With this inconſiderable force, he propoſes to ſubdue the moſt powerful ſtate on the continent of America: this was the empire of Mexico; rich, powerful, and inhabited by millions of Indians, paſſionately fond of war, and then headed by Montezuma, whoſe fame in arms ſtruck terror into the neighbouring nations, and extended over one half the globe. Never hiſtory, to be true, was more improbable and romantic than that of this war. The empire of Mexico had ſubſiſted for ages: its inhabitants were not rude and barbarous; every thing announced a poliſhed and intelligent people. They knew,

knew, like the Egyptians of old, whoſe wiſdom is ſtill admired in this particular, that the year conſiſted nearly of 365 days. Their ſuperiority in military affairs was the object of admiration and terror over all the continent; and their government, founded on the ſure baſis of laws combined with religion, ſeemed to bid defiance to time itſelf. Mexico, the capital of the empire, ſituated in the middle of a ſpacious lake, was the nobleſt monument of American induſtry: it communicated with the continent by immenſe cauſeways, which were carried through the lake. The city was admired for its buildings, all of ſtone, its ſquares and market places, the ſhops which glittered with gold and ſilver, and the ſumptuous palaces of Montezuma, ſome erected on columns of jaſper, and containing whatever was moſt rare, curious, or uſeful. But all the grandeur of this empire could not defend it againſt the Spaniards. Cortez, in his march, met with feeble oppoſition from the nations along the coaſt of Mexico, who were terrified at their firſt appearance: the warlike animals, on which the Spaniſh officers were mounted, the artificial thunder which iſſued from their hands, the wooden caſtles which had wafted them over the ocean, ſtruck a panic into the natives, from which they did not recover until it was too late. Wherever the Spaniards marched they ſpared no age or ſex, nothing ſacred or prophane. At laſt, the inhabitants of Tlaſca, and ſome other ſtates on the coaſt, deſpairing of being able to oppoſe them, enter into their alliance, and join armies with thoſe terrible, and, as they believed, invincible conquerors. Cortez, thus reinforced, marched onward to Mexico; and in his progreſs diſcovers a volcano of ſulphur and ſaltpetre, whence he could ſupply himſelf with powder. Montezuma heard of his progreſs, without daring to oppoſe it. This ſovereign commanded 30 vaſſals of whom each could appear at the head of 100,000 combatants, armed with bows and arrows, and yet he dares not reſiſt a handful of Spaniards aided by a few Americans whoſe allegiance would be ſhaken by the firſt reverſe of fortune. Such was the difference between the inhabitants of the two worlds, and the fame of the Spaniſh victories, which always marched before them.

By ſending a rich preſent of gold, which only whetted the Spaniſh avarice, Montezuma haſtened the approach of the enemy. No oppoſition is made to their entry into his capital. A palace is ſet apart for Cortez and his companions, who are already treated as the maſters of the new world. He had good reaſon, however, to diſtruſt the affected politeneſs of this emperor, under which he ſuſpected ſome plot for his deſtruction was concealed; but he had no pretence for violence;

Montezuma

Montezuma loaded him with kindneſs, and with gold in greater quantities than he demanded, and his palace was ſurrounded with artillery, the moſt frightful of all engines to the Americans. At laſt a circumſtance fell out which afforded Cortez a pretext for beginning hoſtilities. In order to ſecure a communication by ſea to receive the neceſſary reinforcements, he had erected a fort, and left a ſmall garriſon behind him at Vera Cruz, which has ſince become an emporium of commerce between Europe and America. He underſtood that the Americans in the neighbourhood had attacked this garriſon in his abſence, and that a Spaniard was killed in the action, that Montezuma himſelf was privy to this violence, and had iſſued orders that the head of the ſlain Spaniard ſhould be carried through his provinces, to deſtroy a belief, which then prevailed among them, that the Europeans were immortal. Upon receiving this intelligence, Cortez went in perſon to the emperor, attended by a few of his moſt experienced officers. Montezuma pleaded innocence, in which Cortez ſeemed extremely ready to believe him, though at the ſame time he alleged that the Spaniards in general would never be perſuaded of it unleſs he returned along with them to their reſidence, which would remove all jealouſy between the two nations. The ſucceſs of this interview ſhewed the ſuperiority of the European addreſs. A powerful monarch, in the middle of his own palace, and ſurrounded by his guards, gave himſelf up a priſoner, to be diſpoſed of according to the inclination of a few gentlemen who came to demand him. Cortez had now got into his hands an engine by which every thing might be accompliſhed. The Americans had the higheſt reſpect, or rather a ſuperſtitious veneration for their emperor. Cortez therefore, by keeping him in his power, allowing him to enjoy every mark of royalty but his freedom, and at the ſame time, from a thorough knowledge of his character, being able to flatter all his taſtes and paſſions, maintained the eaſy ſovereignty of Mexico, by governing its prince. Did the Mexicans, grown familiar with the Spaniards, begin to abate of their reſpect? Montezuma was the firſt to teach them more politeneſs. Was there a tumult, excited through the cruelty or avarice of the Spaniards? Montezuma aſcended the battlements of his priſon, and harangued his Mexicans into order and ſubmiſſion. This farce continued a long while: but on one of theſe occaſions, when Montezuma was ſhamefully diſgracing his character by juſtifying the enemies of his country, a ſtone, from an unknown hand, ſtruck him on the temple, which in a few days occaſioned his death. The Mexicans, now delivered from this emperor, who co-operated ſo ſtrongly with

with the Spaniards, elect a new prince, the famous Gatimozin, who from the beginning discovered an implacable animosity against the Spanish name. Under his conduct the unhappy Mexicans rushed against those very men, whom a little before they had offered to worship. The Spaniards, however, by the dexterous management of Cortez, were too firmly established to be expelled from Mexico. The immense tribute which the grandees of this country had agreed to pay to the crown of Spain, amounted to 600,000 marks of pure gold, besides an amazing quantity of precious stones, a fifth part of which was distributed among the soldiers, stimulated their avarice and their courage, and made them willing to perish rather than part with so precious a booty. The Mexicans, however, made no small efforts for independence; but all their valour, and despair itself, gave way before what they called the Spanish thunder. Gatimozin and the empress were taken prisoners. This was the prince who, when he lay stretched on burning coals, by order of one of the receivers of the king of Spain's exchequer, who inflicted the torture to make him discover into what part of the lake he had thrown his riches, said to his high priest, condemned to the same punishment, and making hideous cries, "Do you take me to "lay on a bed of roses?" The high priest remained silent, and died in an act of obedience to his sovereign. Cortez, by getting a second emperor into his hands, made a complete conquest of Mexico; with which the Castile D'Or, Darien, and other provinces, fell into the hands of the Spaniards.

While Cortez, and his soldiers, were employed in reducing Mexico, they got intelligence of another great empire, situated towards the equinoctial line, and the tropic of Capricorn, which was said to abound in gold and silver, and precious stones, and to be governed by a prince more magnificent than Montezuma. This was the empire of Peru, which extended in length near thirty degrees, and was the only other country in America, which deserved the name of a civilized kingdom. Whether it happened, that the Spanish government had not received certain intelligence concerning Peru, or that, being engaged in a multiplicity of other concerns, they did not chuse to adventure on new enterprizes; certain it is, that this extensive country, more important than Mexico itself, was reduced by the endeavours, and at the expence, of three private persons. The names of these were, Francis Pizarro, Almagro, and Lucques, a priest, and a man of considerable fortune. The two former were natives of Panama, men of doubtful birth, and of low education. Pizarro, the soul of the enterprize, could neither read nor write. They sailed over into

into Spain, and without difficulty, obtained a grant of what they ſhould conquer. Pizarro then ſet out for the conqueſt of Peru, with 250 foot, 60 horſe, and 12 ſmall pieces of cannon, drawn by ſlaves from the conquered countries. If we reflect that the Peruvians naturally entertained the ſame prejudices with the Mexicans, in favour of the Spaniſh nation, and were beſide, of a character ſtill more ſoft and unwarlike, it need not ſurprize us, after what has been ſaid of the conqueſt of Mexico, that with this inconſiderable force, Pizarro ſhould make a deep impreſſion on the Peruvian empire. There were particular circumſtances likewiſe which conſpired to aſſiſt him, and which, as they diſcover ſomewhat of the hiſtory, religion, and ſtate of the human mind in this immenſe continent, it may not be improper to relate.

Mango Capac was the founder of the Peruvian empire. He was one of thoſe uncommon men who, calm and diſpaſſionate themſelves, can obſerve the paſſions of their fellow creatures, and turn them to their own profit or glory. He obſerved that the people of Peru were naturally ſuperſtitious, and had a particular veneration for the ſun. He pretended therefore to be deſcended from that luminary, whoſe worſhip he was ſent to eſtabliſh, and whoſe authority he was entitled to bear. By this ſtory, romantic as it appears, he eaſily deceived a credulous people, and brought a large extent of territory under his juriſdiction; a larger he ſtill ſubdued by his arms; but both the force, and the deceit, he employed for the moſt laudable purpoſes. He united and civilized the diſtreſſed and barbarous people; he bent them to laws and arts; he ſoftened them by the inſtitutions of a benevolent religion; in ſhort, there was no part of America, where agriculture and the arts were ſo aſſiduouſly cultivated, and where the people were of ſo mild and ingenuous manners. A race of princes ſucceeded Mango, diſtinguiſhed by the title of Yncas, and revered by the people as deſcendants of their great God the Sun. The twelfth of theſe was now on the throne, and named Atabalipa. His father, Guaiana Capac, had conquered the province of Quito, which now makes a part of Spaniſh Peru. To ſecure himſelf in the poſſeſſion, he had married the daughter of the natural prince of that country, and of this marriage was ſprung Atabalipa. His elder brother, named Hueſcar, of a different mother, had claimed the ſucceſſion to the whole of his father's dominions, not excepting Quito, which devolved on the younger by a double connection. A civil war had been kindled on this account, which after various turns of fortune, and greatly weakening the kingdom, ended in favour of Atabalipa, who detained Hueſcar, as a

priſoner, in the tower of Cuſco, the capital of the Peruvian empire. In this feeble, and disjointed ſtate, was the kingdom of Peru, when Pizarro made his arrival. The ominous predictions of religion too, as in moſt other caſes, joined their force to human calamities. Prophecies were recorded, dreams were recollected, which foretold the ſubjection of the empire, by unknown perſons, whoſe deſcription exactly correſponded to the appearance of the Spaniards. In theſe circumſtances, Atabalipa, inſtead of oppoſing the Spaniards, ſet himſelf to procure their favour. Pizarro, however, whoſe temper partook of the meanneſs of his education, had no conception of dealing gently with thoſe he called Barbarians, but who, however, though leſs acquainted with the cruel art of deſtroying their fellow creatures, were more civilized than himſelf. While he was engaged in conference therefore with Atabalipa, his men, as they had been previouſly inſtructed, furiouſly attacked the guards of that prince, and having butchered 5000 of them, as they were preſſing forward, without regard to their particular ſafety, to defend the ſacred perſon of their monarch, ſeized Atabalipa himſelf, whom they carried off to the Spaniſh quarters. Pizarro, with the ſovereign in his hands, might already be deemed the maſter of Peru; for the inhabitants of this country were as ſtrongly attached to their emperor, as the Mexicans themſelves. Atabalipa was not long in their hands before he began to treat of his ranſom. On this occaſion the antient ornaments, amaſſed by a long line of magnificent kings, the hallowed treaſures of the moſt magnificent temples, were brought out to ſave him, who was the ſupport of the kingdom, and of the religion. While Pizarro was ingaged in this negotiation, by which he propoſed, without releaſing the emperor, to get into his poſſeſſion an immenſe quantity of his beloved gold, the arrival of Almagro cauſed ſome embarraſſment in his affairs. The friendſhip, or rather the external ſhew of friendſhip between theſe men, was ſolely founded on the principle of avarice, and a bold enterprizing ſpirit, to which nothing appeared too dangerous, that might gratify their ruling paſſion. When their intereſts therefore happened to interfere, it was not to be thought that any meaſures could be kept between them. Pizarro expected to enjoy the moſt conſiderable ſhare of the treaſure, ariſing from the emperor's ranſom, becauſe he had the chief hand in acquiring it. Almagro inſiſted on being upon an equal footing; and at length, leſt the common cauſe might ſuffer by any rupture between them, this diſpoſition was agreed to. The ranſom is paid in without delay, a ſum exceeding their conception, but not capable to gratify their

avarice.

avarice. It exceeded 1,500,000 l. ſterling, and conſidering the value of money at that time, was prodigious: on the dividend, after deducting a fifth for the king of Spain, and the ſhares of the chief commanders and officers, each private ſoldier had above 2000 l. Engliſh money. With ſuch fortunes it was not to be expected that a mercenary army would incline to be ſubjected to the rigours of military diſcipline. They inſiſted on being diſbanded, that they might enjoy the fruits of their labour in quiet. Pizarro complied with this demand, ſenſible that avarice would ſtill detain a number in his army, and that thoſe who returned with ſuch magnificent fortunes, would induce new adventurers to purſue the ſame plan for acquiring gold. Theſe wiſe reflections were abundantly verified; it was impoſſible to ſend out better recruiting officers, than thoſe who had themſelves ſo much profited by the field; new ſoldiers conſtantly arrived, and the American armies never wanted reinforcements.

This immenſe ranſom was only a farther reaſon for detaining Atabalipa in confinement, until they diſcovered whether he had another treaſure to gratify their avarice. But whether they believed he had no more to give, and were unwilling to employ their troops in guarding a prince, from whom they expected no farther advantage, or that Pizarro had conceived an averſion againſt the Peruvian emperor, on account of ſome inſtances of craft and policy, which he obſerved in his character, and which he conceived might prove dangerous to his affairs, it is certain, that by his command Atabalipa was put to death. To juſtify this cruel proceeding, a ſham charge was exhibited againſt the unhappy prince, in which he was accuſed of idolatry, of having many concubines, and other circumſtances of equal impertinence. The only juſt ground of accuſation againſt him was, that his brother Hueſcar had been put to death by his command; and even this was conſiderably palliated, becauſe Hueſcar had been plotting his deſtruction, that he might eſtabliſh himſelf on the throne. Upon the death of the Ynca, a number of candidates appeared for the throne. The principal nobility ſet up the full brother of Hueſcar; Pizarro ſet up a ſon of Atabalipa; and two generals of the Peruvians endeavoured to eſtabliſh themſelves by the aſſiſtance of the army. Theſe diſtractions, which in another empire would have been extremely hurtful, and even here at another time, were at preſent rather advantageous to the Peruvian affairs. The candidates fought againſt one another, their battles accuſtomed the harmleſs people to blood; and ſuch is the preference of a ſpirit of any kind raiſed in a nation to a total lethargy, that in the courſe of thoſe quarrels among

themſelves, the inhabitants of Peru aſſumed ſome courage againſt the Spaniards, whom they regarded as the ultimate cauſe of all their calamities. The loſſes which the Spaniards met with in theſe quarrels, though inconſiderable in themſelves, were rendered dangerous, by leſſening the opinion of their invincibility, which they were careful to preſerve among the inhabitants of the new world. This conſideration engaged Pizarro to conclude a truce; and this interval he employed in laying the foundations of the famous city Lima, and in ſettling the Spaniards in the country. But as ſoon as a favourable opportunity offered, he renewed the war againſt the Indians, and after many difficulties made himſelf maſter of Cuſco, the capital of the empire. While he was engaged in theſe conqueſts, new grants and ſupplies arrived from Spain. Pizarro obtained 200 leagues along the ſea-coaſt, to the ſouthward of what had been before granted, and Almagro 200 leagues to the ſouthward of Pizarro's government. This diviſion occaſioned a warm diſpute between them, each reckoning Cuſco within his own diſtrict. But the dexterity of Pizarro brought about a reconciliation. He perſuaded his rival, that the country which really belonged to him, lay to the ſouthward of Cuſco, and that it was no way inferior in riches, and might be as eaſily conquered as Peru. He offered him his aſſiſtance in the expedition, the ſucceſs of which he did not even call in queſtion.

Almagro, that he might have the honour of ſubduing a kingdom for himſelf, liſtened to his advice; and joining as many of Pizarro's troops to his own, as he judged neceſſary, penetrated, with great danger and difficulty, into Chili; loſing many of his men as he paſſed over mountains of an immenſe height, and always covered with ſnow. He reduced, however, a very conſiderable part of this country. But the Peruvians were now become too much acquainted with war, not to take advantage of the diviſion of the Spaniſh troops. They made an effort for regaining their capital, in which, Pizarro being indiſpoſed, and Almagro removed at a great diſtance, they were well nigh ſucceſsful. The latter, however, no ſooner got notice of the ſiege of Cuſco, than, relinquiſhing all views of diſtant conqueſts, he returned, to ſecure the grand object of their former labours. He raiſed the ſiege with infinite ſlaughter of the aſſailants; but having obtained poſſeſſion of this city, he was unwilling to give it up to Pizarro, who now approached with an army, and knew of no other enemy but the Peruvians. This diſpute occaſioned a long and bloody ſtruggle between them, in which the turns of fortune were various, and the reſentment fierce on both ſides, becauſe the

the fate of the vanquiſhed was certain death. This was the lot of Almagro, who, in an advanced age, fell a victim to the ſecurity of a rival, in whoſe dangers and triumphs he had long ſhared, and with whom, from the beginning of the enterprize, he had been intimately connected. During the courſe of this civil war, many Peruvians ſerved in the Spaniſh armies, and learned, from the practice of Chriſtians, to butcher one another. That blinded nation, however, at length opened their eyes, and took a very remarkable reſolution. They ſaw the ferocity of the Europeans, their unextinguiſhable reſentment and avarice, and they conjectured that theſe paſſions would never permit their conteſts to ſubſide. Let us retire, ſaid they, from among them, let us fly to our mountains; they will ſpeedily deſtroy one another, and then we may return in peace to our former habitations. This reſolution was inſtantly put in practice; the Peruvians diſperſed, and left the Spaniards in their capital. Had the force on each ſide been exactly equal, this ſingular policy of the natives of Peru, might have been attended with ſucceſs. But the victory of Pizarro put an end to Almagro's life, and the hopes of the Peruvians, who have never ſince ventured to make head againſt the Spaniards.

Pizarro, now ſole maſter of the field, and of the richeſt empire in the world, was ſtill urged on by his ambition, to undertake new enterprizes. The ſouthern countries of America, into which he had ſome time before diſpatched Almagro, offered the richeſt conqueſt. Towards this quarter the mountain of Potoſi, compoſed of entire ſilver, had been diſcovered, the ſhell of which only remains at preſent. He therefore followed the tract of Almagro into Chili, and reduced another part of that country. Orellana, one of his commanders, paſſed the Andes, and ſailed down to the mouth of the river of Amazons: an immenſe navigation, which diſcovered a rich and delightful country, but as it is moſtly flat, and therefore not abounding in minerals, the Spaniards then, and ever ſince, neglected it. Pizarro meeting with repeated ſucceſs, and having no ſuperior to controul, nor rival to keep him within bounds, now gave looſe reins to the natural ferocity of his temper, and behaved with the baſeſt tyranny and cruelty againſt all who had not concurred in his deſigns. This conduct raiſed a conſpiracy againſt him, to which he fell a ſacrifice in his own palace, and in the city of Lima, which he himſelf had founded. The partiſans of old Almagro, declared his ſon of the ſame name their viceroy. But the greater part of the nation, though extremely well ſatisfied with the fate of Pizarro, did not concur with this declaration. They waited the

the orders of Charles V. then king of Spain, who ſent over Vaca di Caſtro to be their governor. This man, by his integrity and wiſdom, was admirably well fitted to heal the wounds of the colony, and to place every thing on the moſt advantageous footing, both for it and for the mother country. By his prudent management the mines of la Plata and Potoſi, which were formerly a matter of private plunder, became an object of public utility to the court of Spain. The parties were ſilenced or cruſhed; young Almagro, who would hearken to no terms of accommodation, was put to death; and a tranquillity, ſince the arrival of the Spaniards unknown, was reſtored to Peru. It ſeems, however, that De Caſtro had not been ſufficiently ſkilled, in gaining the favour of the Spaniſh miniſtry, by proper bribes or promiſes, which a miniſtry would always expect from the governor of ſo rich a country. By their advice, a council was ſent over to controul de Caſtro, and the colony was again unſettled. The parties but juſt extinguiſhed, began to blaze anew; and Gonzalo, the brother of the famous Pizarro, ſet himſelf at the head of his brother's partiſans, with whom many new male-contents had united. It was now no longer a diſpute between governors, about the bounds of their juriſdiction. Gonzalo Pizarro only paid a nominal ſubmiſſion to the king. He ſtrengthened daily, and even went ſo far as to behead a governor, who was ſent over to curb him. He gained the confidence of the admiral of the Spaniſh fleet in the South Seas, by whoſe means he propoſed to hinder the landing of any troops from Spain, and he had a view of uniting the inhabitants of Mexico in his revolt.

Such was the ſituation of affairs, when the court of Spain, ſenſible of their miſtake in not ſending into America, men whoſe character and virtue only, and not importunity and cabal, pleaded in their behalf, diſpatched with unlimited powers, Peter de la Gaſga, a man differing only from Caſtro, by being of a more mild and inſinuating behaviour, but with the ſame love of juſtice, the ſame greatneſs of ſoul, and the ſame diſintereſted ſpirit. All thoſe who had not joined in Pizarro's revolt, flocked under his ſtandard; many of his friends, charmed with the behaviour of Gaſga, forſook their old connections: the admiral was gained over by inſinuation to return to his duty; and Pizarro himſelf was offered a full indemnity, provided he ſhould return to the allegiance of the Spaniſh crown. But ſo intoxicating are the ideas of royalty, that Pizarro was inclined to run every hazard, rather than ſubmit to an officer of Spain. With thoſe of his partiſans therefore, who ſtill continued to adhere to his intereſt, he determined to venture a battle, in which he was conquered and

taken prisoner. His execution followed soon after; and thus the brother of him, who conquered Peru for the crown of Spain, fell a sacrifice to the security of the Spanish dominion over that country.

The conquest of the great empires of Mexico and Peru, is the only part of the American history, which deserves to be treated under the present head. What relates to the reduction of the other parts of the continent, or of the islands, if it contains either instruction or entertainment, shall be handled under these particular countries. We now proceed to treat of the manners, government, religion, and whatever composes the character of the natives of America; and as these are extremely similar all over this part of the globe, we shall speak of them in general, in order to save continual repetitions, noticing at the same time, when we enter upon the description of the particular countries, whatever is peculiar or remarkable in the inhabitants of each.

On the original Inhabitants of AMERICA.

THE discovery of America has not only opened a new source of wealth to the busy and commercial part of Europe, but an extensive field of speculation to the philosopher, who would trace the character of man under various degrees of refinement, and observe the movements of the human heart, or the operations of the human understanding, when untutored by science, and untainted with corruption. So striking seemed the disparity between the inhabitants of Europe, and the natives of America, that some speculative men have ventured to affirm, that it is impossible they should be of the same species, or derived from one common source. This conclusion, however, is extremely ill founded. The characters of mankind may be infinitely varied according to the different degrees of improvement at which they are arrived, the manner in which they acquire the necessaries of life, the force of custom and habit, and a multiplicity of other circumstances too particular to be mentioned, and too various to be reduced under any general head. But the great outlines of humanity are to be discovered among them all, notwithstanding the various shades which characterise nations, and distinguish them from each other.

When the thirst of gold carried the inhabitants of Europe beyond the Atlantic, they found the inhabitants of the new world immersed in what they reckoned barbarity, but which, however, was a state of honest independence, and noble simplicity.

plicity. Except the inhabitants of the great empires of Peru and Mexico, who, comparatively ſpeaking, were refined nations, the natives of America were unacquainted with almoſt every European art; even agriculture itſelf, the moſt uſeful of them all, was hardly known, or cultivated very ſparingly. The only method on which they depended for acquiring the neceſſaries of life, was by hunting the wild animals, which their mountains and foreſts ſupplied in great abundance. This exerciſe, which among them is a moſt ſerious occupation, gives a ſtrength and agility to their limbs, unknown among other nations. The ſame cauſe perhaps renders their bodies in general, where the rays of the ſun are not too violent, uncommonly ſtraight and well proportioned. Their muſcles are firm and ſtrong; their bodies and heads flattiſh, which is the effect of art; their features are regular, but their countenances fierce, their hair long, black, lank, and as ſtrong as that of a horſe. The colour of their ſkin is a reddiſh brown, admired among them, and heightened by the conſtant uſe of bears fat and paint. The character of the Indians is altogether founded upon their circumſtances and way of life. A people who are conſtantly employed in procuring the means of a precarious ſubſiſtence, who live by hunting the wild animals, and who are generally engaged in war with their neighbours, cannot be ſuppoſed to enjoy much gaiety of temper, or a high flow of ſpirits. The Indians therefore are in general grave even to ſadneſs; they have nothing of that giddy vivacity peculiar to ſome nations of Europe, and they deſpiſe it. Their behaviour to thoſe about them is regular, modeſt, and reſpectful. Ignorant of the arts of amuſement, of which that of ſaying trifles agreeably is one of the moſt conſiderable, they never ſpeak but when they have ſomething important to obſerve; and all their actions, words, and even looks, are attended with ſome meaning. This is extremely natural to men who are almoſt continually engaged in purſuit, which to them are of the higheſt importance. Their ſubſiſtence depends entirely on what they procure with their hands, and their lives, their honour, and every thing dear to them, may be loſt by the ſmalleſt inattention to the deſigns of their enemies. As they have no particular object to attach them to one place rather than another, they fly wherever they expect to find the neceſſaries of life in greateſt abundance. Cities, which are the effects of agriculture and arts, they have none. The different tribes or nations are for the ſame reaſon extremely ſmall, when compared with civiliſed ſocieties, in which induſtry, arts, agriculture, and commerce, have united a vaſt number of individuals, whom a complicated

luxury renders useful to one another. These small tribes live at an immense distance; they are separated by a desart frontier, and hid in the bosom of impenetrable and almost boundless forests.

There is established in each society a certain species of government, which over the whole continent of America prevails with exceeding little variation; because over the whole of this continent the manners and way of life are nearly similar and uniform. Without arts, riches, or luxury, the great instruments of subjection in polished societies, an American has no method by which he can render himself considerable among his companions, but by a superiority in personal qualities of body or mind. But as nature has not been very lavish in her personal distinctions, where all enjoy the same education, all are pretty much equal, and will desire to remain so. Liberty therefore is the prevailing passion of the Americans, and their government, under the influence of this sentiment, is better secured than by the wisest political regulations. They are very far, however, from despising all sort of authority; they are attentive to the voice of wisdom, which experience has conferred on the aged, and they enlist under the banners of the chief, in whose valour and military address they have learned to repose their confidence. In every society therefore there is to be considered the power of the chief and of the elders; and according as the government inclines more to the one or to the other, it may be regarded as monarchical, or as a species of aristocracy. Among those tribes which are most engaged in war, the power of the chief is naturally predominant, because the idea of having a military leader, was the first source of his superiority, and the continual exigencies of the state requiring such a leader, will continue to support and even to enhance it. His power, however, is rather persuasive than coercive; he is reverenced as a father, rather than feared as a monarch. He has no guards, no prisons, no officers of justice, and one act of ill-judged violence would pull him from the throne. The elders, in the other form of government, which may be considered as an aristocracy, have no more power. In some tribes indeed there are a kind of hereditary nobility, whose influence being constantly augmented by time, is more considerable. But this source of power, which depends chiefly on the imagination, by which we annex, to the merit of our contemporaries, that of their fore-fathers, is too refined to be very common among the natives of America. In most countries therefore, age alone is sufficient for acquiring respect, influence, and authority. It is age which teaches experience, and experience is the only source of knowledge among

among a barbarous people. Among those persons business is conducted with the utmost simplicity, and which may recal to those who are acquainted with antiquity a picture of the most early ages. The heads of families meet together in a house or cabin, appointed for the purpose. Here the business is discussed, and here those of the nation, distinguished for their eloquence or wisdom, have an opportunity of displaying those talents. Their orators, like those of Homer, express themselves in a bold figurative style, stronger than refined, or rather softened nations can well bear, and with gestures equally violent, but often extremely natural and expressive. When the business is over, and they happen to be well provided in food, they appoint a feast upon the occasion, of which almost the whole nation partakes. The feast is accompanied with a song, in which the real, or fabulous exploits of their forefathers are celebrated. They have dances too, though like those of the Greeks and Romans, chiefly of the military kind, and their music and dancing accompanies every feast.

It often happens, that those different tribes or nations, scattered as they are at an immense distance from one another, meet in their excursions after prey. If there subsists no animosity between them, which seldom is the case, they behave in the most friendly and courteous manner. But if they happen to be in a state of war, or if there has been no previous intercourse between them, all who are not friends, are deemed enemies, they fight with the most savage fury.

War, if we except hunting, is the only employment of the men; as to every other concern, and even the little agriculture they enjoy, it is left to the women. Their most common motive for entering into war, when it does not arise from an accidental rencounter or interference, is either to revenge themselves for the death of some lost friends, or to acquire prisoners, who may assist them in their hunting, and whom they adopt into their society. These wars are either undertaken by some private adventurers, or at the instance of the whole community. In the latter case, all the young men, who are disposed to go out to battle, for no one is compelled contrary to his inclination, give a bit of wood to the chief, as a token of their design to accompany him. For every thing among these people is transacted with a great deal of ceremony and many forms. The chief, who is to conduct them, fasts several days, during which he converses with no one, and is particularly careful to observe his dreams, which the presumption natural to savages, generally renders as favourable as he could desire. A variety of other superstitions and ceremonies are observed. One of the most hideous is setting the war kettle

on the fire, as an emblem that they are going out to devour their enemies, which among ſome nations muſt formerly have been the caſe, ſince they ſtill continue to expreſs it in clear terms, and uſe an emblem ſignificant of the ancient uſage. Then they diſpatch a porcelane, or large ſhell to their allies, inviting them to come along, and drink the blood of their enemies. For with the Americans, as with the Greeks of old,

"A generous friendſhip no cold medium knows,
"But with one love, with one reſentment glows."

They think that thoſe in their alliance muſt not only adopt their enmities, but have their reſentment wound up to the ſame pitch with themſelves. And indeed no people carry their friendſhips, or their reſentment, ſo far as they do; and this is what ſhould be expected from their peculiar circumſtances; that principle in human nature, which is the ſpring of the ſocial affections, acts with ſo much the greater force, the more it is reſtrained. The Americans, who live in ſmall ſocieties, who ſee few objects and few perſons, become wonderfully attached to theſe objects and perſons, and cannot be deprived of them, without feeling themſelves miſerable. Their ideas are too confined, their breaſts are too narrow to entertain the ſentiments of general benevolence, or even of ordinary humanity. But this very circumſtance, while it makes them cruel and ſavage to an incredible degree, towards thoſe with whom they are at war, adds a new force to their particular friendſhips, and to the common tie which unites the members of the ſame tribe, or of thoſe different tribes which are in alliance with one another. Without attending to this reflection, ſome facts we are going to relate, would excite our wonder without informing our reaſon, and we ſhould be bewildered in a number of particulars ſeemingly oppoſite to one another, without being ſenſible of the general cauſe from which they proceed.

Having finiſhed all the ceremonies previous to the war, they iſſue forth with their faces blackened with charcoal, intermixed with ſtreaks of vermillion, which give them a moſt horrid appearance. Then they exchange their cloaths with their friends, and diſpoſe of all their finery to the women, who accompany them to a conſiderable diſtance to receive thoſe laſt tokens of eternal friendſhip.

The great qualities in an Indian war are vigilance and attention, to give and to avoid a ſurprize; and indeed in theſe they are ſuperior to all nations in the world. Accuſtomed to continual wandering in the foreſts, having their perceptions ſharpened

ſharpened by keen neceſſity, and living in every reſpect according to nature, their external ſenſes have a degree of acuteneſs which at firſt view appears incredible. They can trace out their enemies, at an immenſe diſtance, by the ſmoak of their fires, which they ſmell, and by the tracks of their feet on the ground, imperceptible to an European eye, but which they can count and diſtinguiſh with the utmoſt facility. They even diſtinguiſh the different nations with whom they are acquainted, and can determine the preciſe time when they paſſed, where an European could not, with all his glaſſes, diſtinguiſh footſteps at all. Theſe circumſtances, however, are of ſmall importance, becauſe their enemies are no leſs acquainted with them. When they go out, therefore, they take care to avoid making uſe of any thing by which they might run the danger of a diſcovery. They light no fire to warm themſelves, or to prepare their victuals: they lie cloſe to the ground all day, and travel only in the night; and marching along in files, he that cloſes the rear, diligently covers with leaves the tracks of his own feet, and of theirs who preceded him. When they halt to refreſh themſelves, ſcouts are ſent out to reconnoitre the country, and beat up every place, where they ſuſpect an enemy may lie concealed. In this manner they enter unawares the villages of their foes, and while the flower of the nation are engaged in hunting, maſſacre all the children, women, and helpleſs old men, or make priſoners of as many as they can manage, or have ſtrength enough to be uſeful to their nation. But when the enemy is appriſed of their deſign, and coming on in arms againſt them, they throw themſelves flat on the ground among the withered herbs and leaves, which their faces are painted to reſemble. Then they allow a part to paſs unmoleſted, when all at once, with a tremendous ſhout, riſing up from their ambuſh, they pour a ſtorm of muſket bullets on their foes. The party attacked, returns the ſame cry. Every one ſhelters himſelf with a tree, and returns the fire of the adverſe party, as ſoon as they raiſe themſelves from the ground to give a ſecond fire. Thus does the battle continue until the one party is ſo much weakened, as to be uncapable of farther reſiſtance. But if the force on each ſide continues nearly equal, the fierce ſpirits of the ſavages, inflamed by the loſs of their friends, can no longer be reſtrained. They abandon this diſtant war, they ruſh upon one another with clubs and hatchets in their hands, magnifying their own courage, and inſulting their enemies with the bittereſt reproaches. A cruel combat enſues, death appears in a thouſand hideous forms which would congeal the blood of civilized nations to behold, but which rouſe the fury of ſavages. They trample,

they inſult over the dead bodies, tearing the ſcalp from the head, wallowing in their blood like wild beaſts, and ſometimes devouring their fleſh. The flaughter rages on till it meets with no reſiſtance, then the priſoners are ſecured, thoſe unhappy men, whoſe fate is a thouſand times more dreadful than theirs who have died in the field. The conquerors ſet up a hideous howling to lament the friends they have loſt. They approach in a melancholy and ſevere gloom to their own village, a meſſenger is ſent to announce their arrival, and the women with frightful ſhrieks come out to mourn their dead brothers, or their huſbands. When they are arrived, the chief relates in a low voice to the elders a circumſtantial account of every particular of the expedition. The orator proclaims aloud this account to the people, and as he mentions the names of thoſe who have fallen, the ſhrieks of the women are redoubled. The men too join in theſe cries, according as each is moſt connected with the deceaſed, by blood or friendſhip. The laſt ceremony is the proclamation of the victory; each individual then forgets his private misfortunes, and joins in the triumph of his nation; all tears are wiped from their eyes, and by an unaccountable tranſition, they paſs in a moment from the bitterneſs of ſorrow, to an extravagance of joy. But the treatment of the priſoners, whoſe fate all this time remains undecided, is what chiefly characteriſes the ſavages.

We have already mentioned the ſtrength of their affections or reſentments. United as they are in ſmall ſocieties, connected within themſelves by the firmeſt ties, their friendly affections, which glow with the moſt intenſe warmth within the walls of their own village, ſeldom extend beyond them. They feel nothing for the enemies of their nation; and their reſentment is eaſily extended from the individual, who has injured them, to all others of the ſame tribe. The priſoners, who have themſelves the ſame feelings, know the intentions of their conquerors, and are prepared for them. The perſon, who has taken the captive, attends him to the cottage, where, according to the diſtribution made by the elders, he is to be delivered to ſupply the loſs of a citizen. If thoſe who receive him have their family weakened by war or other accidents, they adopt the captive into the family, of which he becomes a member. But if they have no occaſion for him, or their reſentment for the loſs of their friends be too high to endure the ſight of any connected with thoſe who were concerned in it, they ſentence him to death. All thoſe who have met with the ſame ſevere ſentence being collected, the whole nation is aſſembled at the execution, as for ſome great ſolemnity. A ſcaffold is erected, and the priſoners are tied to the ſtake,

where

where they commence their death-ſong, and prepare for the enſuing ſcene of cruelty with the moſt undaunted courage. Their enemies, on the other ſide, are determined to put it to the proof, by the moſt refined and exquiſite tortures. They begin at the extremity of his body, and gradually approach the more vital parts. One plucks out his nails by the roots, one by one; another takes a finger into his mouth, and tears off the fleſh with his teeth; a third thruſts the finger, mangled as it is, into the bowl of a pipe made red hot, which he ſmoaks like tobacco; then they pound his toes and fingers to pieces between two ſtones; they pull off the fleſh from the teeth, and cut circles about his joints, and gaſhes in the fleſhy parts of his limbs, which they ſear immediately with red hot irons, cutting, burning, and pinching them alternately; they pull off this fleſh, thus mangled and roaſted, bit by bit, devouring it with greedineſs, and ſmearing their faces with the blood in an enthuſiaſm of horror and fury. When they have thus torn off the fleſh, they twiſt the bare nerves and tendons about an iron, tearing and ſnapping them, whilſt others are employed in pulling and extending the limbs in every way that can increaſe the torment. This continues often five or ſix hours, and ſometimes, ſuch is the ſtrength of the ſavages, days together. Then they frequently unbind him, to give a breathing to their fury, to think what new torments they ſhall inflict, and to refreſh the ſtrength of the ſufferer, who, wearied out with ſuch a variety of unheard of torments, often falls into ſo profound a ſleep, that they are obliged to apply the fire to awake him and renew his ſufferings. He is again faſtened to the ſtake, and again they renew their cruelty; they ſtick him all over with ſmall matches of wood, that eaſily takes fire but burns ſlowly; they continually run ſharp reeds into every part of his body; they drag out his teeth with pincers, and thruſt out his eyes; and laſtly, after having burned his fleſh from the bones with ſlow fires; after having ſo mangled the body that it is all but one wound; after having mutilated his face in ſuch a manner as to carry nothing human in it; after having peeled the ſkin from the head, and poured a heap of red hot coals or boiling water on the naked ſkull, they once more unbind the wretch, who, blind, and ſtaggering with pain and weakneſs, aſſaulted and pelted upon every ſide with clubs and ſtones, now up, now down, falling into their fires at every ſtep, runs hither and thither, until one of the chiefs, whether out of compaſſion, or weary of cruelty, puts an end to his life with a club or a dagger. The body is then put into the kettle, and this barbarous employment is ſucceeded by a feaſt as barbarous.

The

The women, forgetting the human as well as the female nature, and transformed into ſomething worſe than furies, act their parts, and even outdo the men in this ſcene of horror, while the principal perſons of the country ſit round the ſtake, ſmoaking and looking on without the leaſt emotion. What is moſt extraordinary, the ſufferer himſelf, in the little intervals of his torments, ſmoaks too, appears unconcerned, and converſes with his torturers about indifferent matters. Indeed, during the whole time of his execution, there ſeems a conteſt between him and them which ſhall exceed, they in inflicting the moſt horrid pains, or he in enduring them, with a firmneſs and conſtancy almoſt above human: not a groan, not a ſigh, not a diſtortion of countenance eſcapes him; he poſſeſſes his mind entirely in the midſt of his torments; he recounts his own exploits; he informs them what cruelties he has inflicted upon their countrymen, and threatens them with the revenge that will attend his death; and, though his reproaches exaſperate them to a perfect madneſs of rage and fury, he continues his inſults even of their ignorance of the art of tormenting, pointing out himſelf more exquiſite methods, and more ſenſible parts of the body to be afflicted. The women have this part of courage as well as the men; and it is as rare for any Indian to behave otherwiſe, as it would be for any European to ſuffer as an Indian. Such is the wonderful power of an early inſtitution, and a ferocious thirſt of glory. *I am brave and intrepid*, exclaims the ſavage in the face of his tormentors, *I do not fear death, nor any kind of tortures; thoſe who fear them are cowards; they are leſs than women; life is nothing to thoſe that have courage: may my enemies be confounded with deſpair and rage; Oh! that I could devour them, and drink their blood to the laſt drop.*

I do not dwell upon theſe circumſtances of cruelty, which ſo degrade human nature, out of choice; but, as all who mention the cuſtoms of this people have inſiſted upon their behaviour in this reſpect very particularly, and as it ſeems neceſſary to give a true idea of their character, I did not chuſe to omit it. And what is ſtill more important, it ſerves to ſhew in the ſtrongeſt light, to what an inconceivable degree of barbarity, to what a pitch the paſſions of men may be carried, when untamed by the refinements of poliſhed ſociety, when let looſe from the government of reaſon, and uninfluenced by the dictates of Chriſtianity; a religion that teaches compaſſion to our enemies, which is neither known nor practiſed in other inſtitutions; and it will make us more ſenſible than ſome appear to be, of the value of commerce, the arts of a civilized life, and the light of literature; which, if they have abated the force of ſome of the natural virtues, by the luxury which attends

attends them, have taken out likewiſe the ſting of our natural vices, and ſoftened the ferocity of the human race.

Nothing in the hiſtory of mankind, as I have already obſerved, forms a ſtronger contraſt than this cruelty of the ſavages towards thoſe with whom they are at war, and the warmth of their affection towards their friends, who conſiſt of all thoſe who live in the ſame village, or are in alliance with it: among theſe all things are common; and this, though it may in part ariſe from their not poſſeſſing very diſtinct notions of ſeparate property, is chiefly to be attributed to the ſtrength of their attachment; becauſe in every thing elſe, with their lives as well as their fortunes, they are ready to ſerve their friends. Their houſes, their proviſion, even their young women, are not enough to oblige a gueſt. Has any one of theſe ſucceeded ill in his hunting? Has his harveſt failed? or is his houſe burned? He feels no other effect of his misfortune, than that it gives him an opportunity to experience the benevolence and regard of his fellow citizens; but to the enemies of his country, or to thoſe who have privately offended, the American is implacable. He conceals his ſentiments, he appears reconciled, until by ſome treachery or ſurprize he has an opportunity of executing an horrible revenge. No length of time is ſufficient to allay his reſentment; no diſtance of place great enough to protect the object; he croſſes the ſteepeſt mountains, he pierces the moſt impracticable foreſts, and traverſes the moſt hideous bogs and deſerts for ſeveral hundreds of miles; bearing the inclemency of the ſeaſons, the fatigue of the expedition, the extremes of hunger and thirſt, with patience and chearfulneſs, in hopes of ſurpriſing his enemy, on whom he exerciſes the moſt ſhocking barbarities, even to the eating of his fleſh. To ſuch extremes do the Indians puſh their friendſhip or their enmity; and ſuch indeed in general is the character of all ſtrong and uncultivated minds.

But what we have ſaid reſpecting the Indians would be a faint picture, did we omit obſerving the force of their friendſhip, which principally appears by the treatment of their dead. When any one of the ſociety is cut off, he is lamented by the whole: on this occaſion a thouſand ceremonies are practiſed, denoting the moſt lively ſorrow. Of theſe, the moſt remarkable, as it diſcovers both the height and continuance of their grief, is what they call the feaſt of the dead, or the feaſt of ſouls. The day of this ceremony is appointed by public order, and nothing is omitted that it may be celebrated with the utmoſt pomp and magnificence. The neighbouring tribes are invited to be preſent, and to join in the ſolemnity. At this time all who have died ſince the laſt ſolemn occaſion, (which is renewed every ten years among ſome tribes, and

every

every eight among others) are taken out of their graves: thoſe who have been interred at the greateſt diſtance from the villages are diligently ſought for, and brought to this great rendezvous of carcaſſes.

It is not difficult to conceive the horror of this general diſinterment. I cannot deſcribe it in a more lively manner than it is done by Lafitau, to whom we are indebted for the moſt authentic account of thoſe nations.

Without queſtion, ſays he, the opening of theſe tombs diſplays one of the moſt ſtriking ſcenes that can be conceived; this humbling portrait of human miſery, in ſo many images of death, wherein ſhe ſeems to take a pleaſure to paint herſelf in a thouſand various ſhapes of horror, in the ſeveral carcaſes, according to the degree in which corruption has prevailed over them, or the manner in which it has attacked them. Some appear dry and withered; others have a ſort of parchment upon their bones; ſome look as if they were baked and ſmoaked, without any appearance of rottenneſs; ſome are juſt turning towards the point of putrefaction; whilſt others are all ſwarming with worms, and drowned in corruption. I know not which ought to ſtrike us moſt, the horror of ſo ſhocking a ſight, or the tender piety and affection of theſe poor people towards their departed friends; for nothing deſerves our admiration more than that eager diligence and attention with which they diſcharge this melancholy duty of their tenderneſs; gathering up carefully even the ſmalleſt bones; handling the carcaſſes, diſguſtful as they are, with every thing loathſome, cleanſing them from the worms, and carrying them upon their ſhoulders through tireſome journeys of ſeveral days, without being diſcouraged from the offenſiveneſs of the ſmell, and without ſuffering any other emotions to ariſe than thoſe of regret, for having loſt perſons who were ſo dear to them in their lives, and ſo lamented in their death.

They bring them into their cottages, where they prepare a feaſt in honour of the dead, during which their great actions are celebrated, and all the tender intercourſes which took place between them and their friends are piouſly called to mind. The ſtrangers, who have come ſometimes many hundred miles to be preſent on the occaſion, join in the tender condolance; and the women, by frightful ſhrieks, demonſtrate that they are pierced with the ſharpeſt ſorrow. Then the dead bodies are carried from the cabins for the general reinterment. A great pit is dug in the ground, and thither, at a certain time, each perſon attended by his family and friends, marches in ſolemn ſilence, bearing the dead body of a ſon, a father, or a brother. When they are all convened, the dead bodies, or the duſt of thoſe which were quite corrupted, are depoſited

depoſited in the pit: then the torrent of grief breaks out anew. Whatever they poſſeſs moſt valuable is interred with the dead. The ſtrangers are not wanting in their generoſity, and confer thoſe preſents which they have brought along with them for the purpoſe. Then all preſent go down into the pit, and every one takes a little of the earth, which they afterwards preſerve with the moſt religious care. The bodies, ranged in order, are covered with intire new furs, and over theſe with bark, on which they throw ſtones, wood, and earth. Then taking their laſt farewell, they return each to his own cabin.

We have mentioned that in this ceremony the ſavages offer, as preſents to the dead, whatever they value moſt highly. This cuſtom, which is univerſal among them, ariſes from a rude notion of the immortality of the ſoul. They believe this doctrine moſt firmly, and it is the principal tenet of their religion. When the ſoul is ſeparated from the body of their friends, they conceive that it ſtill continues to hover around it, and to require and take delight in the ſame things with which it formerly was pleaſed. After a certain time, however, it forſakes this dreary manſion, and departs far weſtward into the land of ſpirits. They have even gone ſo far as to make a diſtinction between the inhabitants of the other world; ſome, they imagine, particularly thoſe who in their life-time have been fortunate in war, poſſeſs a high degree of happineſs, have a place for hunting and fiſhing, which never fails, and enjoy all ſenſual delights, without labouring hard in order to procure them. The ſouls of thoſe, on the contrary, who happen to be conquered or ſlain in war, are extremely miſerable after death. A future ſtate therefore is not at all conſidered among the ſavages as a place of retribution, as the reward of humble virtue, or as the puniſhment of proſperous vice. They rather judge of our happineſs in the next world by what we have enjoyed in the preſent.

Their taſte for war, which forms the chief ingredient in their character, gives a ſtrong bias to their religion. Areſkoui, or the god of battle, is revered as the great god of the Indians. Him they invoke before they go into the field, and according as his diſpoſition is more or leſs favourable to them, they conclude they will be more or leſs ſucceſsful. Some nations worſhip the ſun and moon; among others there are a number of traditions, relative to the creation of the world, and the hiſtory of the gods: traditions which reſemble the Grecian fables, but which are ſtill more abſurd and inconſiſtent. But religion is not the prevailing character of the Indians; and except when they have ſome immediate occaſion for the aſſiſtance of their gods, they pay them no ſort of worſhip. Like all rude nations, however, they are ſtrongly addicted to ſuperſtition.

They

They believe in the exiſtence of a number of good and bad genii or ſpirits, who interfere in the affairs of mortals, and produce all our happineſs or miſery. It is from the evil genii, in particular, that our diſeaſes proceed; and it is to the good genii we are indebted for a cure. The miniſters of the genii are the jugglers, who are alſo the only phyſicians among the ſavages. Theſe jugglers are ſuppoſed to be inſpired by the good genii, moſt commonly in their dreams, with the knowledge of future events; they are called in to the aſſiſtance of the ſick, and are ſuppoſed to be informed by the genii whether they will get over the diſeaſe, and in what way they muſt be treated. But theſe ſpirits are extremely ſimple in their ſyſtem of phyſic, and, in almoſt every diſeaſe, direct the juggler to the ſame remedy. The patient is incloſed in a narrow cabin, in the midſt of which is a ſtone red hot; on this they throw water, until he is well ſoaked with the warm vapour and his own ſweat. Then they hurry him from the bagnio, and plunge him ſuddenly into the next river. This coarſe method, which coſts many their lives, often performs very extraordinary cures. The jugglers have likewiſe the uſe of ſome ſpecifics of wonderful efficacy; and all the ſavages are dextrous in curing wounds by the application of herbs. But the power of theſe remedies is always attributed to the magical ceremonies with which they are adminiſtered.

A general Deſcription of AMERICA.

THIS great weſtern continent, frequently denominated the new world, extends from the 80 deg. north, to the 56 deg. ſouth lat; and where its breadth is known, from the 35 to the 136 deg. of weſt lon. from London, ſtretching between 8 and 9000 miles in length, and in its greateſt breadth 3690. It ſees both hemiſpheres, has two ſummers, and a double winter, and enjoys all the variety of climates which the earth affords. It is waſhed by the two great oceans. To the eaſtward it has the Atlantic, which divides it from Europe and Africa. To the weſt it has the Pacific, or great South-Sea, by which it is ſeparated from Aſia. By theſe ſeas it may, and does, carry on a direct commerce with the other three parts of the world. It is compoſed of two great continents, one on the north, the other upon the ſouth, which are joined by the kingdom of Mexico, which forms a ſort of Iſthmus 1500 miles long, and in one part at Darien, ſo extremely narrow, as to make the communication between the two oceans by no means difficult, being only 60 miles over. In the great gulph, which is formed between the Iſthmus, and

the northern and ſouthern continents, lie an infinite multitude of iſlands, many of them large, moſt of them fertile, and denominated the Weſt-Indies, in contradiſtinction to the countries and iſlands of Aſia, beyond the cape of Good-Hope, which are called the Eaſt-Indies.

Before we begin to treat of ſeparate countries in their order, we muſt according to juſt method take notice of thoſe mountains and rivers, which diſdain, as it were, to be confined within the limits of particular provinces, and extend over a great part of the continent. For though America in general be not a mountainous country, it has the greateſt mountains in the world. In ſouth America the Andes, or Cordilleras, run from north to ſouth along the coaſt of the Pacific ocean. They exceed in length any chain of mountains in the other parts of the globe; extending from the Iſthmus of Darien, to the ſtreights of Magellan, they divide the whole ſouthern parts of America, and run a length of 4300 miles. Their height is as remarkable as their length, for though in part within the torrid zone, they are conſtantly covered with ſnow. In North America, which is chiefly compoſed of gentle aſcents, or level plains, we know of no conſiderable mountains, except thoſe towards the pole, and that long ridge which lies on the back of our ſettlements, ſeparating our colonies from Canada and Louiſiana, which we call the Apalachian, or Alegeney mountains; if that may be conſidered as a mountain, which upon one ſide is extremely lofty, but upon the other is nearly on a level with the reſt of the country.

America is, without queſtion, that part of the globe which is beſt watered; and that not only for the ſupport of life, and all the purpoſes of fertility, but for the convenience of trade, and the intercourſe of each part with the others. In North America, ſuch is the wiſdom and goodneſs of the Creator of the univerſe, thoſe vaſt tracts of country, ſituated beyond the Apalachian mountains, at an immenſe and unknown diſtance from the ocean, are watered by inland ſeas, called the Lakes of Canada, which not only communicate with each other, but give riſe to ſeveral great rivers, particularly the Miſſiſippi, running from north to ſouth till it falls into the gulph of Mexico, after a courſe, including its turnings, of 4500 miles, and receiving in its progreſs the vaſt tribute of the Illinois, the Miſaures, the Ohio, and other great rivers ſcarcely inferior to the Rhine, or the Danube; and on the north, the river St. Laurence, running a contrary courſe from the Miſſiſippi, till it empties itſelf into the ocean near Newfoundland; all of them being almoſt navigable to their heads, lay open the inmoſt receſſes of this great continent, and afford ſuch an inlet for commerce, as muſt produce the greateſt advantages, whenever the

the country adjacent ſhall come to be fully inhabited, and by an induſtrious and civilized people. The eaſtern ſide of North America, which makes a part of the Britiſh empire, beſides the noble rivers Hudſon, Delaware, Suſquehana, and Potowmack, ſupplies ſeveral others of great depth, length, and commodious navigation: hence many parts of our ſettlements are ſo advantageouſly interſected with navigable rivers and creeks, that our planters, without exaggeration, may be ſaid to have each a harbour at his door.

South America is, if poſſible, in this reſpect even more fortunate. It ſupplies much the two largeſt rivers in the world, the river of Amazones, and the Rio de la Plata, or Plate River. The firſt riſing in Peru, not far from the South Sea, paſſes from weſt to eaſt, and falls into the ocean between Brazil and Guiana, after a courſe of more than 3000 miles, in which it receives a prodigious number of great and navigable rivers. The Rio de la Plata, riſes in the heart of the country, and having its ſtrength gradually augmented, by an acceſſion of many powerful ſtreams, diſcharges itſelf with ſuch vehemence into the ſea, as to make its taſte freſh for many leagues from land. Beſides theſe there are other rivers in South America, of which the Oronoquo is the moſt conſiderable.

A country of ſuch vaſt extent on each ſide of the equator, muſt neceſſarily have a variety of ſoils as well as climates. It is a treaſury of nature, producing moſt of the metals, minerals, plants, fruits, trees, and wood, to be met with in the other parts of the world, and many of them in greater quantities and high perfection. The gold and ſilver of America has ſupplied Europe with ſuch immenſe quantities of thoſe valuable metals, that they are become vaſtly more common; ſo that the gold and ſilver of Europe now bears little proportion to the high price ſet upon them before the diſcovery of America.

This country alſo produces diamonds, pearls, emeralds, amethyſts, and other valuable ſtones, which by being brought into Europe, have contributed likewiſe to lower their value. To theſe, which are chiefly the production of Spaniſh America, may be added a great number of other commodities, which, though of leſs price, are of much greater uſe, and many of them make the ornament and wealth of the Britiſh empire in this part of the world. Of theſe are the plentiful ſupplies of cochineal, indigo, anatto, logwood, brazil, fuſtic, pimento, lignum vitæ, rice, ginger, cocoa, or the chocolate nut, ſugar, cotton, tobacco, banillas, red-wood, the balſams of Tolu, Peru, and China, that valuable article in medicine the Jeſuit's bark, mechoacan, ſaſſafras, ſarſaparilla, caſſia, tamarinds, hides,

hides, furs, ambergris, and a great variety of woods, roots, and plants, to which, before the discovery of America, we were either entire strangers, or forced to buy at an extravagant rate from Asia and Africa, through the hands of the Venetians and Genoese, who then engrossed the trade of the eastern world.

This continent has also a variety of excellent fruits, which here grow wild to great perfection; as pine-apples, pomegranates, citrons, lemons, oranges, malicatons, cherries, pears, apples, figs, grapes, great numbers of culinary, medicinal, and other herbs, roots and plants; and so fertile is the soil, that many exotic productions are nourished in as great perfection, as in their native ground.

Though the Indians still live in the quiet possession of many large tracts, America so far as known, is chiefly claimed, and divided into colonies, by three European nations, the Spaniards, English, and Portuguese. The Spaniards, who, as they first discovered it, have the largest and richest portion, extending from New Mexico and Louisiana, in North America, to the streights of Magellan in the south sea, excepting the large province of Brazil, which belongs to Portugal; for though the French and Dutch have some forts upon Surinam and Guiana, they scarcely deserve to be considered as proprietors of any part of the southern continent.

Next to Spain, the most considerable proprietor of America is Great Britain, who derives her claim to North America, from the first discovery of that continent, by Sebastian Cabot, in the name of Henry VII. anno 1497, about six years after the discovery of South America by Columbus, in the name of the king of Spain. This country was in general called Newfoundland, a name which is now appropriated solely to an island upon its coast. It was a long time before we made any attempt to settle this country. Sir Walter Raleigh, an uncommon genius, and a brave commander, first shewed the way by planting a colony in the southern part, which he called Virginia, in honour of his mistress queen Elizabeth.

The French indeed, from this period until the conclusion of the late war, laid a claim to, and actually possessed Canada and Louisiana, comprehending all that extensive inland country, reaching from Hudson's Bay on the north, to Mexico and the gulph of the same name on the south; regions which all Europe could not people in the course of many ages: but no territory however extensive, no empire however boundless, could gratify the ambition of that aspiring nation; hence, under the most solemn treaties, they continued in a state of hostility, making gradual advances upon the back of our set-

tlements, and rendering their acquiſitions more ſecure and permanent by a chain of forts, well ſupplied with all the implements of war. At the ſame time they laboured inceſſantly to gain the friendſhip of the Indians, whom they not only trained to the uſe of arms, but infuſed into theſe ſavages the moſt unfavourable notion of the Engliſh, and the ſtrength of their nation. The Britiſh colonies thus hemmed in, and confined to a ſlip of land along the ſea coaſt, by an ambitious and powerful nation, the rivals and the natural enemies of Great Britain, began to take the alarm. The Britiſh empire in America, yet in its infancy, was threatened with a total diſſolution. The colonies, in their diſtreſs, called out aloud to the mother country. The bulwarks, and the thunder of England, were ſent to their relief, accompanied with powerful armies, well appointed, and commanded by a ſet of heroes, the Scipios of the preſent age. A long war ſucceeded, which ended glorioufly for Great Britain; for after oceans of blood were ſpilt, and every inch of ground bravely diſputed, the French were not only driven from Canada, and its dependancies, but obliged to relinquiſh all that part of Louiſiana, lying on the eaſt ſide of the Miſſiſippi.

Thus at an immenſe expence, and with the loſs of many brave men, our colonies were preſerved, ſecured, and extended ſo far, as to render it difficult to aſcertain the preciſe bounds of our empire in North America, to the northern and weſtern ſides; for to the northward, it ſhould ſeem that we might extend our claims quite to the pole itſelf, nor does any nation ſeem inclined to diſpute the property of this northernmoſt country with us. If we ſhould chooſe to take our ſtand upon the northern extremity, and look towards the ſouth, we have a territory extending in that aſpect, from the pole to Cape Florida in the gulph of Mexico, N. lat. 25, and conſequently near 4000 miles long in a direct line; which is the more valuable, as it includes the moſt temperate climates of this new world, and ſuch as are beſt ſuited to Britiſh conſtitutions. But to the weſtward, our boundaries reach to nations unknown even to the native Indians of Canada. If we might hazard a conjecture, it is nearly equal to the extent of all Europe. This vaſt empire is all the way waſhed by the Atlantic ocean on the eaſt, and on the ſouth by the gulph of Mexico. We have already taken notice of the river St. Lawrence, the Miſſiſippi, the lakes of Canada, and other great bodies of water, which fertilize and enrich its northern and weſtern boundaries, as well as the interior parts.

In deſcribing the ſituation, extent, and boundaries of the numerous colonies which now compoſe this great empire, we have totally rejected the accounts given us by partial French writers,

writers, as well as thoſe of Salmon and other Engliſh geographers, if men deſerve that name, who have wandered ſo widely from the truth, and who ſeem either unacquainted with the ſubject, or have been at no pains to conſult the lateſt and moſt authentic materials. This we thought neceſſary to premiſe, that the reader may be prepared for the following table, which he will find to differ widely from any book of geography hitherto publiſhed, being compoſed from the lateſt treaties and the beſt maps and drawings in conſequence of theſe treaties, and the ſureſt guides in giving the geography of theſe important provinces.

The multitude of iſlands, which lie between the two continents of North and South America, are divided amongſt the Spaniards, Engliſh, and French. The Dutch indeed poſſeſs three or four ſmall iſlands, which in any other hands would be of no conſequence: and the Danes have one or two, but they hardly deſerve to be named among the proprietors of America. We ſhall now proceed to the particular provinces, beginning, according to our method, with the north; but as Labrador or New Britain, and the countries round Hudſon's Bay, with thoſe vaſt regions towards the pole, are little known, we can only include within the following table, the colonies that have been formed into regular governments, which bring us to the 50th degree north lat. viz.

The grand Diviſions of NORTH AMERICA.

Colonies.	Length	Breadt.	Chief Towns.	Diſt. & bearing from London.	Belongs to
Province of Quebec	800	200	Quebec		Great Britain
New Scotland	350	250	Hallifax		Ditto
New England	550	200	Boſton	2760 W.	Ditto
New York	300	150	New York		Ditto
New Jerſey	160	60	Perth Amboy		Ditto
Penſylvania	300	240	Philadelphia		Ditto
Maryland	140	135	Anapolis		Ditto
Virginia	750	240	Williamſburg		Ditto
No. Carolina So. Carolina Georgia	700	380	Wilmington Charles-town Savannah		Ditto Ditto Ditto
Eaſt Florida Weſt Florida	500	440	St. Auguſtin Penſacola		Ditto Ditto
Louiſiana	Bounds undeter.		New Orleans	4080 S. W.	Spain
New Mexico & California	2000	1600	St. Fee St. Juan	4320 S. W.	Ditto Ditto
Mexico or New Spain	2000	600	Mexico	4900 S. W.	Ditto

The principal ISLANDS in North America belonging to Europeans are,

	ISLANDS.	Length.	Breadt.	Chief Towns.	Belongs to
In the Gulph of St. Lawr.	Newfoundland	350	200	Placentia	Great Britain
	Cape Breton	110	80	Louisburg	Ditto
	St. John's	60	30	Charlotte Town	Ditto
In the Atlantic.	The Bermudas isles	20,000 acres		St. George	Ditto
	The Bahama ditto			Naſſau	Ditto
West-India islands, lying in the Atlantic between North and South America.	Jamaica	140	60	Kingſton	Ditto
	Barbadoes	21	14	Bridgetown	Ditto
	St. Chriſtopher's	20	7	Baſſe-terre	Ditto
	Antigua	20	20	St. John's	Ditto
	Nevis and Montſerrat	each of theſe is 18	circum	Charles-Town Plymouth	Ditto Ditto
	Barbuda	20	12		Ditto
	Anguilla	30	10		Ditto
	Dominica	28	13		Ditto
	St. Vincent	24	18		Ditto
	Granada	30	15	Lewis	Ditto
	Tobago	32	9		Ditto
	Cuba	700	70	Havannah	Spain
	Hiſpaniola	450	150	St. Domingo	Ditto & France
	Porto Rico	100	40	Porto Rico	Spain
	Trinidad	90	60		Ditto
	Margaritta	40	24		Ditto
	Martinico	60	30	St. Peter's	France
	Guadalupe	45	38	Baſſ-terre	Ditto
	St. Lucia	23	12		Ditto
	St. Bartholomew, Deſeada, and Marigalante	very ſmall			Ditto Ditto Ditto
	St. Euſtatia	29	circum.	The Bay	Dutch
	Curaſſou	30	10		Ditto
	St. Thomas	15	circum.		Denmark
	St. Croix	30	10	Baſſe End	Ditto

Grand Diviſions of SOUTH AMERICA.

Nations.	Length	Breadt.	Chief Cities.	Diſt. & bearing from London.	Belongs to
Terra Firma	1400	700	Panama	4650 S. W.	Spain
Peru	1800	500	Lima	5520 S. W.	Spain
Amazonia, a very large country, but little known to the Europeans, 1200 L. 960 B.					
Guiana	780	480	Surinam or Cayenne	3840 S. W.	Dutch&French
Braſil	2500	700	St. Salvador	6000 S. W.	Portugal
Paraguay or Laplata	1500	1000	Buenos Ayres	6040 S. W.	Spain & Jeſuits
Chili	1200	500	St. Jago	6600 S. W.	Spain
Terra Magellanica, or Patagonia.	The Spaniards took poſſeſſion of it, but did not think it worth while to ſettle there. 700 L. 300 B.				

BRITISH AMERICA.

NEW BRITAIN.

NEW BRITAIN, or the country lying round Hudſon's bay, and commonly called the country of the Eſquimaux, comprehending Labrador, now North and South Wales, is bounded by unknown lands, and frozen ſeas, about the pole, on the north; by the Atlantic ocean on the eaſt; by the bay and river of St. Lawrence and Canada, on the ſouth; and by unknown lands on the weſt.

MOUNTAINS.] The tremendous high mountains in this country towards the north, their being covered with eternal ſnow, and the winds blowing from thence three quarters of the year, occaſions a degree of cold in the winter, over all this country, which is not experienced in any other part of the world in the ſame latitude.

RIVERS, BAYS, STRAITS, AND CAPES.] Theſe are numerous in this country, and take their names generally from the Engliſh navigators and commanders, by whom they were firſt diſcovered; the principal bay is that of Hudſon, and the principal ſtraits are thoſe of Hudſon, Davies, and Belleiſle.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] This country is extremely barren; to the northward of Hudſon's Bay, even the hardy pine-tree is ſeen no longer, and the cold womb of the earth is incapable of any better production than ſome miſerable ſhrubs. Every kind of European ſeed, which we have committed to the earth, in this inhoſpitable climate, has hitherto periſhed; but, in all probability, we have not tried the ſeed of corn from the northern parts of Sweden and Norway; in ſuch caſes, the place from whence the ſeed comes is of great moment. All this ſeverity, and long continuance of winter, and the barrenneſs of the earth which comes from thence, is experienced in the latitude of fifty-one; in the temperate latitude of Cambridge.

ANIMALS.] Theſe are the mooſe deer, ſtags, rein deer, bears, tygers, buffaloes, wolves, foxes, beavers, otters, lynxes, martins, ſquirrels, ermins, wild cats, and hares. Of the feathered kind, they have geeſe, buſtards, ducks, partridges, and all manner of wild fowls. Of fiſh, there are whales, morſes, ſeals, cod-fiſh, and a white fiſh, preferable to herrings; and in their rivers and freſh waters, pike, perch, carp, and trout. There have been taken at Port Nelſon, in one ſeaſon, ninety thouſand partridges, which are here as large as hens, and twenty-five thouſand hares.

All the animals of theſe countries, are cloathed with a cloſe, ſoft, warm fur. In ſummer there is here, as in other places, a variety in the colours of the ſeveral animals; when that ſeaſon is over, which holds only for three months, they all aſſume the livery of winter, and every ſort of beaſts, and moſt of their fowls, are of the colour of the ſnow; every thing animate and inanimate is white. This is a ſurprizing phenomenon. But what is yet more ſurprizing, and what is indeed one of the moſt ſtriking things, that draw the moſt inattentive to an admiration of the wiſdom and goodneſs of Providence, is, that the dogs and cats from England, that have been carried into Hudſon's Bay, on the approach of winter, have entirely changed their appearance, and acquired a much longer, ſofter, and thicker coat of hair, than they had originally.

Before we advance further in the deſcription of America, it may be proper to obſerve in general, that all the quadrupedes of this new world, are leſs than thoſe of the old; even ſuch as are carried from hence to breed there, are often found to degenerate, but are never ſeen to improve. If with reſpect to ſize, we ſhould compare the animals of the new and the old world, we ſhall find the one bear no manner of proportion to the other. The Aſiatic elephant, for inſtance, often grows to above fifteen feet high, while the tapurette, which is the largeſt native of America, is not bigger than a calf of a year old. The lama, which ſome alſo call the American camel, is ſtill leſs. Their beaſts of prey are quite diveſted of that courage, which is ſo often fatal to man in Africa or Aſia. They have no lions, nor, properly ſpeaking, either leopard or tiger. Travellers, however, have affixed thoſe names to ſuch ravenous animals, as are there found moſt to reſemble thoſe of the antient continent. The congar, the taquar, and the taquaretti among them, are deſpicable in compariſon of the tiger, the leopard, and the panther of Aſia. The tyger of Bengal has been known to meaſure ſix feet in length, without including the tail, while the congar, or American tyger, as ſome affect to call it, ſeldom exceeds three. All the animals therefore in the ſouthern parts of America, are different from thoſe in the ſouthern parts of the ancient continent; nor does there appear to be any common to both, but thoſe, which being able to bear the colds of the north, have travelled from one continent to the other. Thus the bear, the wolf, the rain-deer, the ſtag, and the beaver, are known as well by the inhabitants of New Britain and Canada, as Ruſſia; while the lion, the leopard, and the tyger, which are natives of the ſouth with us, are utterly unknown in ſouthern America.

But

But if the quadrupedes of America be ſmaller than thoſe of the ancient continent, they are in much greater abundance; for it is a rule that obtains through nature, and evidently points out the wiſdom of the author of it, that the ſmalleſt animals multiply in the greateſt proportion. The goat, imported from Europe to ſouthern America, in a few generations becomes much leſs, but then it alſo becomes more prolific, and inſtead of one kid at a time, or two at the moſt, generally produces five, ſix, and ſometimes more. The wiſdom of Providence in making formidable animals unprolific is obvious; had the elephant, the rhinoceros, and the lion, the ſame degree of fecundity with the rabbit, or the rat, all the arts of man would ſoon be unequal to the conteſt, and we ſhould ſoon perceive them become the tyrants of thoſe who call themſelves the maſters of the creation.

PERSONS AND HABITS.] The men of this country ſhew great ingenuity in their manner of kindling a fire, in cloathing themſelves, and in preſerving their eyes from the ill effects of that glaring white which every where ſurrounds them, for the greateſt part of the year; in other reſpects they are very ſavage. In their ſhapes and faces they do not reſemble the Americans who live to the ſouthward; they are much more like the Laplanders and Samoeids of Europe already deſcribed, from whom they are probably deſcended. The other Americans ſeem to be of a Tartar original.

DISCOVERY AND COMMERCE.] The knowledge of theſe northern ſeas and countries, was owing to a project ſtarted in England for the diſcovery of a north-weſt paſſage to China, and the Eaſt Indies, as early as the year 1576. Since then it has been frequently dropped, and as often revived, but never yet compleated. Forbiſher only diſcovered the main of New Britain, or Terra de Labrador, and thoſe ſtraits to which he has given his name. In 1585, John David ſailed from Portſmouth, and viewed that and the more northerly coaſts, but he ſeems never to have entered the bay. Hudſon made three voyages on the ſame adventure, the firſt in 1607, the ſecond in 1608, and his third and laſt in 1610. This bold and judicious navigator entered the ſtraits that lead into this new Mediterranean, the bay known by his name, coaſted a great part of it, and penetrated to eighty degrees and a half into the heart of the frozen zone. His ardour for the diſcovery not being abated by the difficulties he ſtruggled with in this empire of winter, and world of froſt and ſnow, he ſtaid here until the enſuing ſpring, and prepared in the beginning of 1611 to purſue his diſcoveries; but his crew, who ſuffered equal hardſhips, without the ſame ſpirit to ſupport them, mutinied,

ſeized upon him, and ſeven of thoſe who were moſt faithful to him, and committed them to the fury of the icy ſeas, in an open boat. Hudſon and his companions were either ſwallowed up by the waves, or, gaining the inhoſpitable coaſt, were deſtroyed by the ſavages; but the ſhip, and the reſt of the men returned home.

The laſt attempt towards a diſcovery was made in 1746 by captain Ellis, who wintered as far north as 57 degrees and a half; but though the adventurers failed in the original purpoſe, for which they navigated this bay, their project, even in its failure, has been of great advantage to this country. The vaſt countries which ſurround Hudſon's Bay, as we have already obſerved, abound with animals, whoſe fur and ſkins are excellent. In 1670, a charter was granted to a company, which does not conſiſt of above nine or ten perſons, for the excluſive trade to this bay, and they have acted under it ever ſince with great benefit to the private men, who compoſe the company, though comparatively with little advantage to Great Britain. The fur and peltry trade might be carried on to a much greater extent, were it not entirely in the hands of this excluſive company, whoſe intereſt, not to ſay iniquitous ſpirit has been the ſubject of long and juſt complaint. The company employ four ſhips, and 130 ſeamen. They have four forts, viz. Churchill, Nelſon, New Severn, and Albany, which ſtand on the weſt ſide of the bay, and are garriſoned by 186 men. They export commodities to the value of 16,000 l. and bring home returns to the value of 29,340 l. which yield to the revenue 3,734 l. This includes the fiſhery in Hudſon's Bay. This commerce, ſmall as it is, affords immenſe profits to the company, and even ſome advantages to Great Britain in general; for the commodities we exchange with the Indians for their ſkins and furs, are all manufactured in Britain; and as the Indians are not very nice in their choice, ſuch things are ſent, of which we have the greateſt plenty, and which in the mercantile phraſe, are drugs with us. Though the workmanſhip too happen to be in many reſpects ſo deficient, that no civilized people would take it off our hands, it may be admired among the Indians. On the other hand, the ſkins and furs we bring from Hudſon's Bay, enter largely into our manufactures, and afford us materials for trading with many nations of Europe, to great advantage. Theſe circumſtances tend to prove inconteſtibly the immenſe benefit, that would redound to Great Britain, by throwing open the trade to Hudſon's Bay, ſince even in its preſent reſtrained ſtate it is ſo advantageous. This company, it is probable, do not find their trade ſo advantageous now,

as

as it was before we got poſſeſſion of Canada. The only attempt made to trade with Labrador, has been directed towards the fiſhery. Great Britain has no ſettlement here, though the annual produce of the fiſhery, amounting to upward of 49,000 l. and the natural advantages of the country ſhould encourage us to ſet about this deſign.

CANADA, or the PROVINCE OF QUEBEC.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 800	between	61 and 81 weſt longitude.
Breadth 200		45 and 52 north latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] THE French comprehended under the name of Canada, a very large territory, taking into their claim part of New Scotland, New England, and New York, on the eaſt; and, to the weſt, extending it as far as the Pacific Ocean. That part, however, which they have been able to cultivate, and which bore the face of a colony, lay chiefly upon the banks of the river St. Lawrence, and the numerous ſmall rivers falling into that ſtream. This being reduced by the Britiſh arms in the late war, is now formed into a Britiſh colony, called the Province of Quebec. *See the Royal Proclamation.*

AIR AND CLIMATE.] The climate of this extenſive province is not very different from the colonies mentioned above, but as it is much further from the ſea, and more northerly than a great part of theſe provinces, it has a much ſeverer winter, though the air is generally clear; but like moſt of thoſe American tracts, that do not lie too far to the northward, the ſummers are very hot and exceeding pleaſant.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] Though the climate be cold, and the winter long and tedious, the ſoil is in general very good, and in many parts both pleaſant and fertile, producing wheat, barley, rye, with many other ſorts of grains, fruits and vegetables; tobacco, in particular, thrives well, and is much cultivated. The iſle of Orleans near Quebec, and the lands upon the river St. Laurence, and other rivers are remarkable for the richneſs of their ſoil. The meadow grounds in Canada, which are well watered, yield excellent graſs, and breed vaſt numbers of great and ſmall cattle. As we are now entering upon the cultivated provinces of Britiſh America, and as Canada, ſtretching a conſiderable way upon the back of our other ſettlements, contains almoſt all the different ſpecies of

wood

wood, and animals, that are found in these colonies, we shall, to avoid repetitions, speak of them here at some length.

TIMBER AND PLANTS.] The uncultivated parts of North America, contain the greatest forests in the world. They are a continued wood not planted by the hands of men, and in all appearance as old as the world itself. Nothing is more magnificent to the sight; the trees lose themselves in the clouds; and there is such a prodigious variety of species, that even among those persons who have taken most pains to know them, there is not one perhaps that knows half the number. The province we are describing, produces amongst others, two sorts of pines, the white and the red; four sorts of firs; two sorts of cedar and oak, the white and the red; the male and female maple; three sorts of ash-trees, the free, the mungrel, and the bastard; three sorts of walnut-trees, the hard, the soft, and the smooth; vast numbers of beech-trees, and white wood; white and red elms, and poplars. The Indians hollow the red elms into canoes, some of which, made out of one piece, will contain 20 persons, others are made of the bark, the different pieces of which they sew together with the inner rind, and daub over the seams with pitch, or rather a bituminous matter resembling pitch, to prevent their leaking; and the ribs of these canoes are made of boughs of trees. About November the bears and wild cats take up their habitation in the hollow elms, and remain there till April. Here are also found cherry-trees, plum-trees, the vinegar-tree, the fruit of which, infused in water, produces vinegar; an aquatic plant, called Alaco, the fruit of which may be made into a confection; the white thorn; the cotton-tree, on the top of which grow several tufts of flowers, which, when shaken in the morning, before the dew falls off, produce honey, that may be boiled up into sugar, the seed being a pod, containing a very fine kind of cotton; the sun-plant, which resembles a marigold, and grows to the height of seven or eight feet; Turky corn; French beans; gourds, melons, capillaire; and the hop-plant.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Near Quebec is a fine lead mine, and in some of the mountains, we are told, silver has been found, though we have not heard any great advantage made of it as yet. This country also abounds with coals.

RIVERS.] The rivers branching through this country are very numerous, and many of them large, bold and deep. The principal are, the Outtauais, St. John's, Seguinay, Desprairies, and Trois Rivieres, but they are all swallowed up by the river St. Laurence. This river issues from the lake Ontario, and taking its course north-east, washes Montreal, where it receives

receives the Outtauais, and forms many fertile iſlands. It continues the ſame courſe, and meets the tide upwards of 400 miles from the ſea, where it is navigable for large veſſels, and below Quebec, 320 miles from the ſea, it becomes broad, and ſo deep that ſhips of the line contributed, in the laſt war, to reduce that capital. After receiving in its progreſs innumerable ſtreams, this great river falls into the ocean at cape Roſieres, where it is 90 miles broad, and where the cold is intenſe, and the ſea boiſterous. In its progreſs it forms a variety of bays, harbours, and iſlands, many of them fruitful, and extremely pleaſant.

LAKES.] The great river St. Laurence, is that only upon which the French (now ſubjects of Great-Britain) have ſettlements of any note; but if we look forward into futurity, it is nothing improbable that Canada, and thoſe vaſt regions to the weſt, will be enabled of themſelves to carry on a conſiderable trade upon the great lakes of freſh water, which theſe countries environ. Here are five lakes, the ſmalleſt of which is a piece of ſweet water, greater than any in the other parts of the world; this is the lake Ontario, which is not leſs than 200 leagues in circumference; Erie, or Oſwego, longer, but not ſo broad, is about the ſame extent. That of the Huron ſpreads greatly in width, and is in circumference not leſs than 300, as is that of Michigan, though like lake Erie, it is rather long and comparatively narrow. But the lake Superior, which contains ſeveral large iſlands, is 500 leagues in the circuit. All of theſe are navigable by any veſſels, and they all communicate with one another, except that the paſſage between Erie and Ontario, is interrupted by a ſtupendous fall or cataract, which is called the falls of Niagara. The water here is about half a mile wide, where the rock croſſes it, not in a direct line, but in the form of a half moon. When it comes to the perpendicular fall, which is 150 feet, no words can expreſs the conſternation of travellers at ſeeing ſo great a body of water falling, or rather violently thrown, from ſo great an height, upon the rocks below; from which it again rebounds to a very great height, appearing white as ſnow, being all converted into foam, through thoſe violent agitations. The noiſe of this fall is often heard at the diſtance of 15 miles, and ſometimes much farther. The vapour ariſing from the fall may ſometimes be ſeen at a great diſtance, appearing like a cloud, or pillar of ſmoak, and in the appearance of a rainbow, whenever the ſun, and the poſition of the traveller, favours. Many beaſts and fowls here loſe their lives, by attempting to ſwim, or croſs the ſtream in the rapids above the fall, and are found daſhed in pieces below, and ſometimes the Indians,

through

through careleſſneſs or drunkenneſs, have met with the ſame fate; and perhaps no place in the world is frequented by ſuch a number of eagles as are invited hither by the carnage of deer, elks, bears, &c. on which they feed. The river St. Laurence, as we have already obſerved, is the outlet of theſe lakes; by this they diſcharge themſelves into the ocean. The French have built forts at the ſeveral ſtraits, by which theſe lakes communicate with each other, as well as where the laſt of them communicates with the river. By theſe they effectually ſecured to themſelves the trade of the lakes, and an influence upon all the nations of America which lay near them.

ANIMALS.] Theſe make the moſt curious, and hitherto the moſt intereſting part of the natural hiſtory of Canada. It is to the ſpoils of theſe that we owe the materials of many of our manufactures, and moſt of the commerce as yet carried on between us and the country we have been deſcribing. The animals that find ſhelter and nouriſhment in the immenſe foreſts of Canada, and which indeed traverſe the uncultivated parts of all this continent, are ſtags, elks, deer, bears, foxes, martens, wild cats, ferrets, weaſels, ſquirrels of a large ſize and greyiſh hue, hares, and rabbits. The ſouthern parts in particular breed great numbers of wild bulls, deer of a ſmall ſize, divers ſorts of roebucks, goats, wolves, &c. The marſhes, lakes, and pools, which in this country are very numerous, ſwarm with otters, beavers or caſtors, of which the white are highly valued, being ſcarce, as well as the right black kind. The American beaver, though reſembling the creature known in Europe by that name, has many particulars which render it the moſt curious animal we are acquainted with. It is near four feet in length, and weighs ſixty or ſeventy pounds; they live from fifteen to twenty years, and the females generally bring forth four young ones at a time. It is an amphibious quadruped, that continues not long at a time in the water, but yet cannot live without frequently bathing in it. The ſavages, who waged a continual war with this animal, believed it to be a rational creature, that it lived in ſociety, and was governed by a leader, reſembling their own ſachem or prince. It muſt indeed be allowed, that the curious accounts given of this animal by ingenious travellers, the manner in which it contrives its habitation, provides food to ſerve during the winter, and always in proportion to the continuance and ſeverity of it, are ſufficient to ſhew the near approaches of inſtinct to reaſon, and even in ſome inſtances the ſuperiority of the former. Their colours are different; black, brown, white, yellow, and ſtraw-colour; but it is obſerved, that the lighter their colour, the leſs quantity of fur

fur they are cloathed with, and live in warmer climates. The furs of the beaver are of two kinds, the dry and the green; the dry fur is the ſkin before it is applied to any uſe; the green are the furs that are worn, after being ſewed to one another, by the Indians, who beſmear them with unctuous ſubſtances, which not only render them more pliable, but give the fine down that is manufactured into hats, that oily quality which renders it proper to be worked up with the dry fur. Both the Dutch and Engliſh have of late found the ſecret of making excellent cloths, gloves, and ſtockings, as well as hats, from the beaver fur. Beſides the fur, this uſeful animal produces the true caſtoreum, which is contained in bags in the lower part of the belly, different from the teſticles: the value of this drug is well known. The fleſh of the beaver is a moſt delicious food, but when boiled it has a diſagreeable reliſh.

The muſk rat is a diminutive kind of beaver, (weighing about five or ſix pounds) which it reſembles in every thing but its tail; and it affords a very ſtrong muſk.

The elk is of the ſize of a horſe or mule. Many extraordinary medicinal qualities, particularly for curing the falling-ſickneſs, are aſcribed to the hoof of the left foot of this animal. Its fleſh is very agreeable and nouriſhing, and its colour a mixture of light-grey and dark-red. They love the cold countries; and when the winter affords them no graſs, they gnaw the bark of trees. It is dangerous to approach very near this animal when he is hunted, as he ſometimes ſprings furiouſly on his purſuers, and tramples them to pieces. To prevent this, the hunter throws his clothes to him, and while the deluded animal ſpends his fury on theſe, he takes proper meaſures to diſpatch him.

There is a carnivorous animal here, called the carcajou, of the feline or cat kind, with a tail ſo long, that Charlevoix ſays he twiſted it ſeveral times round his body. Its body is about two feet in length, from the end of the ſnout to the tail. It is ſaid, that this animal, winding himſelf about a tree, will dart from thence upon the elk, twiſt his ſtrong tail round his body, and cut his throat in a moment.

The buffaloe, a kind of wild ox, has much the ſame appearance with thoſe of Europe: his body is covered with a black wool, which is highly eſteemed. The fleſh of the female is very good; and the buffaloe hides are as ſoft and pliable as chamoes leather, but ſo very ſtrong, that the bucklers which the Indians make uſe of are hardly penetrable by a muſket ball. The Canadian roebuck is a domeſtic animal, but differs in no other reſpect from thoſe of Europe. Wolves are ſcarce in Canada, but they afford the fineſt furs in all the country:

their flesh is white, and good to eat; and they pursue their prey to the tops of the tallest trees. The black foxes are greatly esteemed, and very scarce; but those of other colours are more common: and some on the Upper Mississippi are of a silver colour, and very beautiful. They live upon water-fowls, which they decoy within their clutches by a thousand antic tricks, and then spring upon, and devour them. The Canadian poll-cat has a most beautiful white fur, except the tip of his tail, which is as black as jet. Nature has given this animal no defence but its urine, the smell of which is nauseous and intolerable; this, when attacked, it sprinkles plentifully on its tail, and throws it on the assailant. The Canadian wood-rat is of a beautiful silver colour with a bushy tail, and twice as big as the European: the female carries under her belly a bag, which she opens and shuts at pleasure; and in that she places her young when pursued. Here are three sorts of squirrels; that called the flying-squirrel will leap forty paces and more, from one tree to another. This little animal is easily tamed, and is very lively, except when asleep, which is often the case; and he puts up wherever he can find a place, in one's sleeve, pocket, or muff; he first pitches on his master, whom he will distinguish among 20 persons. The Canadian porcupine is less than a middling dog; when roasted, he eats full as well as a sucking pig. The hares and rabbits differ little from those in Europe, only they turn grey in winter. There are two sorts of bears here, one of a reddish, and the other of a black colour; but the former is the most dangerous. The bear is not naturally fierce, unless when wounded, or oppressed with hunger. They run themselves very poor in the month of July, when it is somewhat dangerous to meet them, and they are said to support themselves during the winter, when the snow lies from four to six feet deep, by sucking their paws. Scarce any thing among the Indians is undertaken with greater solemnity than hunting the bear; and an alliance with a noted bear-hunter, who has killed several in one day, is more eagerly sought after than that of one who has rendered himself famous in war. The reason is, because the chace supplies the family with both food and raiment.

Of the feathered creation, they have eagles, falcons, goshawks, tercols, partridges, grey, red, and black, with long tails, which they spread out as a fan, and make a very beautiful appearance; woodcocks are scarce in Canada, but snipes, and other water-game, are plentiful. A Canadian raven is said by some writers to eat as well as a pullet, and an owl better. Here are black-birds, swallows, and larks; no less

leſs than twenty-two different ſpecies of ducks, and a great number of ſwans, turkeys, geeſe, buſtards, teal, water-hens, cranes, and other large water-fowl; but always at a diſtance from houſes. The Canadian woodpecker is a beautiful bird. Thruſhes and goldfinches are found here; but the chief Canadian bird of melody is the white-bird, which is a kind of ortelan, very ſhewy, and remarkable for announcing the return of ſpring. The fly-bird is thought to be the moſt beautiful of any in nature; with all his plumage, he is no bigger than a cock-chafer, and he makes a noiſe with his wings like the humming of a large fly.

Among the reptiles of this country, the rattle-ſnake only deſerves attention. Some of theſe are as big as a man's leg, and they are long in proportion. What is moſt remarkable in this animal is the tail, which is ſcaly like a coat of mail, and on which it is ſaid there grows every year one ring, or row of ſcales; ſo that they know its age by its tail, as we do that of a horſe by his teeth. In moving, it makes a rattling noiſe, from which it has its name. The bite of this ſerpent is mortal, if a remedy is not applied immediately. In all places where this dangerous reptile is bred, there grows a plant which is called rattle-ſnake herb, the root of which (ſuch is the goodneſs of Providence) is a certain antidote againſt the venom of this ſerpent, and that with the moſt ſimple preparation, for it requires only to be pounded or chewed, and applied like a plaiſter to the wound. The rattle-ſnake ſeldom bites paſſengers, unleſs it is provoked, and never darts itſelf at any perſon without firſt rattling three times with its tail. When purſued, if it has but a little time to recover, it folds itſelf round, with the head in the middle, and then darts itſelf with great fury and violence againſt its purſuers: nevertheleſs, the ſavages chace it, and find its fleſh very good, and being alſo of medicinal quality it is uſed by the American apothecaries in particular caſes.

Some writers are of opinion that the fiſheries in Canada, if properly improved, would be more likely to enrich that country than even the fur trade. The river St. Lawrence contains perhaps the greateſt variety of any in the world, and theſe in the greateſt plenty and of the beſt ſorts.

Beſides a great variety of other fiſh in the rivers and lakes, are ſea-wolves, ſea-cows, porpoiſes, the lencornet, the goberque, the ſea-plaiſe, ſalmon, trout, turtle, lobſters, the chaouraſou, ſturgeon, the achigau, the gilthead, tunny, ſhad, lamprey, ſmelts, conger-eels, mackarel, ſoals, herrings, anchovies, and pilchards. The ſea-wolf, ſo called from its howling, is an amphibious creature; the largeſt are ſaid to weigh

weigh two thouſand pounds; their fleſh is good eating; but the profit of it lies in the oil, which is proper for burning, and currying of leather; their ſkins make excellent coverings for trunks, and though not ſo fine as Morocco leather, they preſerve their freſhneſs better, and are leſs liable to cracks. The ſhoes and boots made of thoſe ſkins let in no water, and, when properly tanned, make excellent and laſting covers for ſeats. The Canadian ſea-cow is larger than the ſea-wolf, but reſembles it in figure: it has two teeth of the thickneſs and length of a man's arm, that, when grown, look like horns, and are very fine ivory as well as its other teeth. Some of the porpoiſes of the river St. Lawrence are ſaid to yield a hogſhead of oil; and of their ſkins waiſtcoats are made, which are exceſſive ſtrong, and muſket proof. The lencronet is a kind of kuttle-fiſh, quite round, or rather oval: there are three ſorts of them, which differ only in ſize; ſome being as large as a hogſhead, and others but a foot long; they catch only the laſt, and that with a torch: they are excellent eating. The goberque has the taſte and ſmell of a ſmall cod. The ſea-plaiſe is good eating; they are taken with long poles armed with iron hooks. The chaouraſou is an armed fiſh, about five feet long, and as thick as a man's thigh, reſembling a pike; but is covered with ſcales that are proof againſt a dagger: its colour is a ſilver grey; and there grows under his mouth a long bony ſubſtance, ragged at the edges. One may readily conceive, that an animal ſo well fortified is a ravager among the inhabitants of the water; but we have few inſtances of fiſh making prey of the feathered creation, which this fiſh does, however, with much art. He conceals himſelf among the canes and reeds, in ſuch a manner that nothing is to be ſeen beſides his weapon, which he holds raiſed perpendicularly, above the ſurface of the water: the fowls, which come to take reſt, imagining the weapon to be only a withered reed, perch upon it, but they are no ſooner alighted, than the fiſh opens his throat, and makes ſuch a ſudden motion to ſeize his prey, that it ſeldom eſcapes him. This fiſh is an inhabitant of the lakes. The ſturgeon is both a freſh and ſalt-water fiſh, taken on the coaſts of Canada and the lakes, from eight to twelve feet long, and proportionably thick. There is a ſmall kind of ſturgeon, the fleſh of which is very tender and delicate. The achigau, and the gilthead, are fiſh peculiar to the river St. Lawrence. Some of the rivers breed a kind of crocodile, that differs but little from thoſe of the Nile.

INHABITANTS AND PRINCIPAL TOWNS.] Before the late war, the banks of the river St. Lawrence, above Quebec, were vaſtly populous, but we cannot preciſely determine the number

number of French and Engliſh ſettled in this province, who are undoubtedly upon the encreaſe. The different tribes of Indians in Canada are almoſt innumerable; but theſe people are obſerved to decreaſe in population where the Europeans are moſt numerous, owing chiefly to the immoderate uſe of ſpirituous liquors, of which they are exceſſively fond. But as liberty is the ruling paſſion of the Indians, we may naturally ſuppoſe that as the Europeans advance, the former will retreat to more diſtant regions.

Quebec, the capital, not only of this province, but of all Canada, is ſituated at the confluence of the rivers St. Lawrence and St. Charles, or the little river, about 320 miles from the ſea. It is built on a rock, partly of marble and partly of ſlate. The town is divided into an upper and a lower; the houſes in both are of ſtone, and built in a tolerable manner. The fortifications are ſtrong, though not regular. The town is covered with a regular and beautiful citadel, in which the governor reſides. The number of inhabitants are computed at 12 or 15,000. The river, which from the ſea hither is four or five leagues broad, narrows all of a ſudden to about a mile wide. The haven, which lies oppoſite the town, is ſafe and commodious, and about five fathom deep. The harbour is flanked by two baſtions, that are raiſed 25 feet from the ground, which is about the height of the tides at the time of the equinox.

From Quebec to Montreal, which is about 170 miles, in ſailing up the river St. Lawrence, the eye is entertained with beautiful landſcapes, the banks being in many places very bold and ſteep, and ſhaded with lofty trees. The farms lie pretty cloſe all the way; ſeveral gentlemens houſes, neatly built, ſhew themſelves at intervals, and there is all the appearance of a flouriſhing colony; but there are few towns or villages. It is pretty much like the well ſettled parts of Virginia and Maryland, where the planters are wholly within themſelves. Many beautiful iſlands are interſperſed in the channel of the river, which have an agreeable effect upon the eye. After paſſing the Richlieu iſlands, the air becomes ſo mild and temperate, that the traveller thinks himſelf tranſported to another climate; but this is to be underſtood in the ſummer months.

The town called Trois Rivieres, or the Three Rivers, is about half way between Quebec and Montreal, and has its name from three rivers which join their currents here, and fall into the St. Lawrence. It is much reſorted to by ſeveral nations of Indians, who by means of theſe rivers, reſort hither and trade with the inhabitants in various kinds of furs

and ſkins. The country here is pleaſant, and fertile in corn, fruit, &c. and great numbers of handſome houſes ſtand on both ſides the rivers.

Montreal ſtands on an iſland in the river St. Lawrence, which is ten leagues in length and four in breadth, at the foot of a mountain which gives name to it, about half a league from the ſouth ſhore. While the French had poſſeſſion of Canada, both the city and iſland of Montreal belonged to private proprietors, who had improved them ſo well, that the whole iſland was become a moſt delightful ſpot, and produced every thing that could adminiſter to the conveniences of life. The city forms an oblong ſquare, divided by regular and well formed ſtreets; and when it fell into the hands of the Engliſh, the houſes were built in a very handſome manner, and every houſe might be ſeen at one view from the harbour, or from the ſouthernmoſt ſide of the river, as the hill on the ſide of which the town ſtands, falls gradually to the water. This place is ſurrounded by a wall and a dry ditch, and its fortifications have been much improved by the Engliſh. Montreal is nearly as large as Quebec; but ſince it fell into the hands of the Engliſh it hath ſuffered much by fires.

GOVERNMENT.] Before the late war, the French lived in affluence, being free from all taxes, and having full liberty to hunt, fiſh, fell timber, and to ſow and plant as much land as they could cultivate. By the capitulation granted to the French, when this country was reduced, both individuals and communities are entitled to all their former rights and privileges. The Roman-catholic is ſtill to continue their eſtabliſhed religion; but the king of Great-Britain ſucceeds to all the power and prerogatives of which the French king was poſſeſſed. Canada is now divided into three governments, viz. Quebec, Montreal, and Trois Rivieres.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.] By expelling the French from the back of our ſettlements, we ſecured them from the danger of being moleſted or attacked by an active and formidable enemy, and enabled our people to attend, with proper ſpirit and induſtry, to agriculture, and the improvement of that country. While the important conqueſt of Canada removed a rival power from that part of North America, it put us in the ſole poſſeſſion of the fur and peltry trade, the uſe and importance of which is well known to the manufacturers of Great-Britain, and enables us to extend the ſcale of a general commerce.

The nature of the climate, ſeverely cold in winter, and the people manufacturing nothing, ſhews what Canada principally wants from Europe; wine, or rather rum, cloths, chiefly coarſe,

coarſe, linen, and wrought iron. The Indian trade requires rum, tobacco, a ſort of duffil blankets, guns, powder, balls, and flints, kettles, hatchets, toys, and trinkets of all kinds.

While this country was poſſeſſed by the French, the Indians ſupplied them with peltry; and the French had traders, who, in the manner of the original inhabitants, traverſed the vaſt lakes and rivers in canoes, with incredible induſtry and patience, carrying their goods into the remoteſt parts of America, and amongſt nations entirely unknown to us. Theſe again brought the market home to them, as the Indians were thereby habituated to trade with them. For this purpoſe, people from all parts, even from the diſtance of 1000 miles, came to the French fair at Montreal, which began in June, and ſometimes laſted three months. On this occaſion, many ſolemnities were obſerved, guards were placed, and the governor aſſiſted, to preſerve order, in ſuch a concourſe, and ſo great a variety of ſavage nations. But ſometimes great diſorder and tumults happened; and the Indians, being ſo fond of brandy, frequently gave for a dram all they were poſſeſſed of. It is remarkable, that many of theſe nations, actually paſſed by our ſettlement of Albany in New York, and travelled 200 miles further to Montreal, though they might have purchaſed the goods cheaper at the former. So much did the French exceed us in the arts of winning the affections of theſe ſavages!

Since we became poſſeſſed of Canada, our trade with that country employs 34 ſhips, and 400 ſeamen. Their exports, at an average of three years, in ſkins, furs, ginſeng, ſnake-root, cappillaire and wheat, amount to 105,500 l. Their imports from Great-Britain, in a variety of articles, are computed at nearly the ſame ſum. It is unneceſſary to make any remarks on the value and importance of this trade, which not only ſupplies us with unmanufactured materials, indiſpenſibly neceſſary in many articles of our commerce, but alſo takes in exchange, the manufactures of our own country, or the production of our other ſettlements in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies.

But with all our attention to the trade and peopling of Canada, it will be impoſſible to overcome certain inconveniences, proceeding from natural cauſes; I mean the ſeverity of the winter, which is ſo exceſſive from December to April, that the greateſt rivers are frozen over, and the ſnow lies commonly from four to ſix feet deep on the ground, even in thoſe parts of the country, which lie three degrees ſouth of London, and in the temperate latitude of Paris. Another inconvenience ariſes from the falls in the river St. Lawrence, below Montreal, which prevents ſea veſſels from penetrating to that emporium of inland commerce. Our communication therefore

with Canada, and the immenſe regions beyond it, will always be interrupted during the winter-ſeaſon, until roads are formed, that can be travelled with ſafety from the Indians. For it may here be obſerved, that theſe ſavage people often commence hoſtilities againſt us, without any previous notice; and frequently, without any provocation, they commit the moſt horrid ravages for a long time with impunity. But when at laſt their barbarities have rouſed the ſtrength of our people, they are not aſhamed to beg a peace; they know we always grant it readily; they promiſe it ſhall endure as long as the ſun and moon; and then all is quiet till ſome incident, too often co-operating with ill uſage received from our traders, gives them a freſh opportunity of renewing their cruelties.

HISTORY.] See the general account of America.

NEW SCOTLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	
Length 350	between	43 and 49 north latitude.	
Breadth 250		60 and 67 weſt longitude.	

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the river St. Lawrence on the north; by the gulph of St. Lawrence, and the Atlantic ocean, eaſt; by the ſame ocean, ſouth; and by Canada and New-England, weſt.

RIVERS.] The river of St. Lawrence forms the northern boundary. The rivers Riſgouche and Nipiſiguit run from weſt to eaſt, and fall into the bay of St. Lawrence. The rivers of St. John, Paſſamagnadi, Penobſcot, and St. Croix, which run from north to ſouth, fall into Fundy bay, or the ſea a little to the eaſtward of it.

SEAS, BAYS AND CAPES.] The ſeas adjoining to it are, the Atlantic ocean, Fundy bay, and the gulph of St. Lawrence. The leſſer bays are, Chenigto and Green bay upon the Iſthmus, which joins the north part of Nova Scotia to the ſouth; and the bay of Chaleurs on the north-eaſt; the bay of Chedibucto on the ſouth-eaſt: the bay of the iſlands, the ports of Bart, Chebucto, Proſper, St. Margaret, La Heve, port Maltois, port Ryſignol, port Vert and port Joly, on the ſouth; port La Tour, on the ſouth-eaſt; port St. Mary, Annapolis, and Minas on the ſouth ſide of Fundy bay.

The chief capes are, cape Portage, Ecoumenac, Tourmentin, cape Port and Epis, on the eaſt. Cape Fogeri, and cape Canceau, on the ſouth-eaſt. Cape Blanco, cape Vert,

cape

cape Theodore, cape Dore, cape La Heve, and cape Negro, on the ſouth. Cape Sable, and cape Fourche, on the ſouth-weſt.

LAKES.] The lakes are very numerous, but have not yet received particular names.

CLIMATE.] The climate of this country, though within the Temperate Zone, has been found rather unfavourable to European conſtitutions. They are wrapt up in the gloom of a fog during great part of the year, and for four or five months it is intenſely cold. But though the cold in winter and the heat in ſummer are great, they come on gradually, ſo as to prepare the body for enduring both.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] From ſuch an unfavourable climate little can be expected. New Scotland is almoſt a continued foreſt; and agriculture, tho' attempted by the Engliſh ſettlers, has hitherto made little progreſs. In moſt parts, the ſoil is thin and barren, the corn it produces of a ſhrivelled kind like rye, and the graſs intermixed with a cold ſpungy moſs. However, it is not uniformly bad; there are tracts in the peninſula to the ſouthward, which do not yield to the beſt land in New England; and, in general, the ſoil is adapted to the produce of hemp and flax. The timber is extremely proper for ſhip-building, and produces pitch and tar.

ANIMALS.] This country is not deficient in the animal productions of the neighbouring provinces, particularly deer, beaver and otters. Wild fowl, and all manner of game, and many kinds of European fowls and quadrupedes have, from time to time, been brought into it, and thrive well. At the cloſe of March, the fiſh begin to ſpawn, when they enter the rivers in ſuch ſhoals, as are incredible. Herrings come up in April, and the ſturgeon and ſalmon in May. But the moſt valuable appendage of New Scotland, is the cape Sable coaſt, along which is one continued range of cod-fiſhing banks, and excellent harbours.

HISTORY, SETTLEMENT, CHIEF TOWNS AND COMMERCE. } Notwithſtanding the forbidding appearance of this country, it was here that ſome of the firſt European ſettlements were made. The firſt grant of lands in it were given by James I. to his ſecretary Sir William Alexander, from whom it had the name of Nova Scotia, or New Scotland. Since then it has frequently changed hands, from one private proprietor to another, and from the French to the Engliſh nation backward and forward. It was not confirmed to the Engliſh, till the peace of Utrecht, and their deſign in acquiring it, does not ſeem to have ſo much ariſen from any proſpect of direct profit to be obtained by it, as from an apprehenſion that the French, by poſſeſſing

this province, might have had it in their power to annoy our other ſettlements. Upon this principle, 3000 families were tranſported in 1749, at the charge of the government, into this country. The town they erected is called Hallifax, from the earl of that name, to whoſe wiſdom and care we owe this ſettlement. The town of Hallifax ſtands upon Chebucto bay, very commodiouſly ſituated for the fiſhery, and has a communication with moſt parts of the province, either by land carriage, the ſea, or navigable rivers, with a fine harbour, where a ſmall ſquadron of ſhips of war lies during the winter, and in ſummer puts to ſea, under the command of a commodore, for the protection of the fiſhery, and to ſee that the articles of the late peace, relating thereto, are duly obſerved by the French. The town has an intrenchment, and is ſtrengthened with forts of timber. Three regiments of men are ſtationed in it, to protect the inhabitants from the Indians, whoſe reſentment, however excited or fomented, has been found implacable againſt the Engliſh. The number of inhabitants is ſaid to be 15 or 16,000, who live very comfortably by the trade they carry on in furs and naval ſtores, by their fiſheries, and its being the reſidence of the governor, and the garriſon already mentioned. The other towns of leſs note are Anapolis, which ſtands on the eaſt ſide of the bay of Fundy, and though but a ſmall wretched place, was formerly the capital of the province. It has one of the fineſt harbours in America, capable of containing a thouſand veſſels at anchor, in the utmoſt ſecurity. This place is alſo protected by a fort and garriſon. St John's is a new ſettlement at the mouth of the river of that name, that falls into the bay of Fundy on the weſt ſide.

The exports from Great Britain to this country, conſiſt chiefly of woollen and linen cloth, and other neceſſaries for wear, of fiſhing tackle, and rigging for ſhips. The amount of our exports, at an average of three years, is about 26,500 l. The only articles we can get in exchange, are timber, and the produce of the fiſhery, which, at a like average, amounts to 38,000 l. But, as we have already obſerved, the negative advantage of this colony, by which our enemies, while it remains in our hands, are prevented from doing harm to our other ſettlements, have principally engaged the Britiſh miniſtry to expend ſuch ſums, and to take ſuch pains in ſupporting it.

NEW ENGLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 550	between	41 and 49 north latitude.
Breadth 200		67 and 74 weſt longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED on the north-eaſt by New-Scotland; on the weſt, by Canada; on the ſouth by New York; and on the eaſt by the Atlantic.

Diviſions.	Provinces.	Chief towns.
The north diviſion, or government	New Hampſhire —	Portſmouth.
The middle diviſion	Maſſachuſet's Colony	BOSTON, N. Lat. 42-20. W. Lon. 71.
The ſouth diviſion	Rhode Iſland, &c.	Newport.
The weſt diviſion	Connecticut ——	New London. Hertford.

RIVERS.] Their rivers are, 1. Connecticut; 2. Thames; 3. Patuxent; 4. Merimac; 5. Piſcataway; 6. Saco; 7. Caſco; 8. Kinebeque; and, 9. Penobſcot, or Pentagonet.

BAYS AND CAPES.] The moſt remarkable bays and harbours are thoſe formed by Plymouth, Rhode-Iſland, and Providence plantations; Monument-Bay; Weſt-Harbour, formed by the bending of Cape-Cod; Boſton-Harbour; Piſcataway, and Caſco-Bay.

The chief capes are, Cape-Cod, Marble-Head, Cape-Anne, Cape-Netic, Cape-Porpus, Cape-Elizabeth, and Cape-Small-Point.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] New England, though ſituated almoſt ten degrees nearer the ſun than the mother country, has an earlier winter, which continues longer, and is more ſevere than with us. The ſummer again is extremely hot, and much beyond any thing known in Europe, in the ſame latitude. The clear and ſerene temperature of the ſky, however, makes amends for the extremity of heat and cold, and renders the climate of this country ſo healthy, that it is reported to agree better with Britiſh conſtitutions, than any other of the American provinces. The winds are very boiſterous in the winter ſeaſon, and naturaliſts aſcribe the early approach, the length and ſeverity of the winter, to the large freſh water lakes lying to the north-weſt of New England, which being froze over ſeveral months, occaſion thoſe piercing winds, which prove ſo fatal to mariners on this coaſt.

The ſun riſes at Boſton, on the longeſt day, at 26 minutes after four in the morning, and ſets at 34 minutes after ſeven in the evening; and on their ſhorteſt day, it riſes at 35 minutes after ſeven in the morning, and ſets at 27 minutes after four in the afternoon: thus their longeſt day is about fifteen hours, and the ſhorteſt about nine.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] We have already obſerved, that the lands lying on the eaſtern ſhore of America, are low, and in ſome parts ſwampy, but further back they riſe into hills. In New England, towards the north-eaſt, the lands become rocky and mountainous. The ſoil here is various, but beſt as you approach the ſouthward. Round Maſſachuſet's bay the ſoil is black, and rich as in any part of England; and here the firſt planters found the graſs above a yard high. The uplands are leſs fruitful, being for the moſt part a mixture of ſand and gravel, inclining to clay. The low grounds abound in meadows and paſture land. The European grains have not been cultivated here with much ſucceſs; the wheat is ſubject to be blaſted; the barley is an hungry grain, and the oats are lean and chaffy. But the Indian corn flouriſhes in high perfection, and makes the general food of the lower ſort of people. They likewiſe malt and brew it into a beer, which is not contemptible. However, the common table drink is cyder and ſpruce beer: the latter is made of the tops of the ſpruce fir, with the addition of a ſmall quantity of molaſſes. They likewiſe raiſe in New England a large quantity of hemp and flax. The fruits of Old England come to great perfection here, particularly peaches and apples. Seven or eight hundred fine peaches may be found on one tree, and a ſingle apple-tree has produced ſeven barrels of cyder in one ſeaſon.

But New England is chiefly diſtinguiſhed for the variety and value of its timber, as oak, aſh, pine, fir, cedar, elm, cypreſs, beech, walnut, cheſnut, hazel, ſaſſafras, ſamach, and other woods uſed in dying or tanning leather, carpenters work, and ſhip building. The oaks here are ſaid to be inferior to thoſe of England; but the firs are of an amazing bulk, and furniſh the royal navy of England with maſts and yards. They draw from their trees conſiderable quantities of pitch, tar, roſin, turpentine, gums, and balm; and the ſoil produces hemp and flax. A ſhip may here be built and rigged out with the produce of their foreſt, and indeed ſhip-building forms a conſiderable branch of their trade.

METALS.] Rich iron mines, of a moſt excellent kind and temper, have been diſcovered in New England, and, if improved, in a ſhort time they may ſupply Great Britain, without having recourſe to Sweden, and other European nations for

for that commodity; especially as the parliament, to encourage the undertaking, allows both pig and bar iron to be imported duty free.

Animals.] The animals of this country furnish many articles of New England commerce. All kinds of European cattle thrive here, and multiply exceedingly; the horses of New England are hardy, mettlesome, and serviceable, but smaller than ours, though larger than the Welsh. They have few sheep; and the wool, though of a staple sufficiently long, is not near so fine as that of England. Here are also elks, deer, hares, rabbits, squirrels, beavers, otters, monkies, minks, martens, racoons, sabbs, bears, wolves, which are only a kind of wild dogs, foxes, ounces, and a variety of other tame and wild quadrupedes, some of which are imported into Great Britain as foreign curiosities. But one of the most singular animals, of this and the neighbouring countries, is the mose or moose deer, of which there are two sorts; the common light grey moose, which resembles the ordinary deer; these herd sometimes thirty together; and the large black moose, whose body is about the size of a bull; his neck resembles a stag's, and his flesh is extremely grateful. The horns, when full grown, are about four or five feet from the head to the tip, and have shoots or branches to each horn, which generally spread about six feet. When this animal goes through a thicket, or under the boughs of a tree, he lays his horns back on his neck, to place them out of his way; and these prodigious horns are shed every year. This animal does not spring or rise in going, like a deer; but a large one, in his common walk, has been seen to step over a gate five feet high. When unharboured, he will run a course of twenty or thirty miles before he takes to a bay; but when chased, he generally takes to the water.

There is hardly any where greater plenty of fowls, as turkeys, geese, partridges, ducks, widgeons, dappers, swans, heathcocks, herons, storks, blackbirds, all sorts of barn-door fowl, vast flights of pigeons, which come and go at certain seasons of the year, cormorants, ravens, crows, &c. The reptiles are, rattle-snakes, frogs, and toads, which swarm in the uncleared parts of these countries, where, with the owls, they make a most hideous noise in the summer evenings.

The seas round New England, as well as its rivers, abound with fish, and even whales of several kinds, such as the whale-bone whale, the spermaceti-whale, which yields ambergris, the fin-backed whale, the scrag whale, and the bunch whale, of which they take great numbers, and send besides some ships every year to fish for whales in Greenland. A terrible creature, called the whale-killer, from 20 to 30 feet long,

long, with ſtrong teeth and jaws, perſecutes the whale in theſe ſeas; but, afraid of his monſtrous ſtrength, they ſeldom attack a full grown whale, or indeed a young one, but in companies of ten or twelve. At the mouth of the river Penobſcot, there is a mackarel fiſhery; they likewiſe fiſh for cod in winter, which they dry in the froſt.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY. } There is not one of our ſettlements which can be compared, in the abundance of people, the number of conſiderable and trading towns, and the manufactures that are carried on in them, to New-England. The moſt populous and flouriſhing parts of the mother country, hardly make a better appearance, than the cultivated parts of this province, which reach about 60 miles back. There are here many gentlemen of conſiderable landed eſtates, but the greateſt part of the people is compoſed of a ſubſtantial yeomanry, who cultivate their own freeholds, without a dependance upon any but Providence, and their own induſtry. Theſe freeholds generally paſs to their children in the way of gavelkind: which keeps them from being almoſt ever able to emerge out of their original happy mediocrity. In no part of the world are the ordinary ſort ſo independant, or poſſeſs more of the conveniences of life; they are uſed from their infancy, to the exerciſe of arms; and they have a militia, which for a militia is by no means contemptible. The population of the four provinces, of which New-England is comprized, is proportioned by Douglaſs, who ſeems to be well informed in this point, as follows,

Maſſachuſet's bay	———	200,000
Connecticut	———	100,000
Rhode iſland	———	30,000
New Hampſhire	———	24,000

But the number ſince his time is ſo greatly increaſed, that according to the lateſt calculation, the four provinces contain 600,000 ſouls, including a ſmall number of Negroes and Indians.

RELIGION.] The church of England, in this part of America, is far from being in a flouriſhing condition; in ſeveral places, the number of auditors do not amount to twelve perſons. In the year 1768, the four provinces contained upwards of 700 religious aſſemblies; of which 36 only obſerved the forms of the church of England. Every particular ſociety among them, is independant of all other eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction; nor does there lie any appeal from their puniſhments or cenſures. The miniſters of Boſton depend entirely on the generoſity

generosity of their hearers for support; a voluntary contribution being made for them, by the congregation, every time divine service is celebrated. It is not long since they suffered any member of the church of England to have a share in the magistracy, or to be elected a member of the Commons, or House of Representatives. Their laws against quakers seem to have been very severe. To bring one in was a forfeiture of 100 l. to conceal one 40 s. an hour; to go to a quaker's meeting 10 s. to preach there 5 s. If a quaker was not an inhabitant, he was subject to banishment, and if he returned, death; but these and some other ecclesiastical laws equally absurd, are now either repealed, or greatly mitigated.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Boston, the capital of New-England, and of all the British empire in America, stands on a peninsula at the bottom of Massachuset's bay, about nine miles from its mouth. At the entrance of this bay are several rocks, which appear above water, and upwards of a dozen small islands, some of which are inhabited. There is but one safe channel to approach the harbour, and that so narrow, that two ships can scarcely sail through abreast, but within the harbour there is room for 500 sail to lie at anchor, in a good depth of water. On one of the islands of the bay, stands Fort William, the most regular fortress in the British plantations. This castle is defended by 100 guns, twenty of which lie on a platform level with the water, so that it is scarce possible for an enemy to pass the castle. To prevent surprize, they have a guard placed on one of the rocks, at two leagues distance, from whence they make signals to the castle, when any ships come near it. There is also a battery of guns at each end of the town. At the bottom of the bay is a noble pier, near 2000 feet in length; along which, on the north side, extends a row of warehouses for the merchants, and to this pier ships of the greatest burthen may come and unload, without the help of boats. The greatest part of the town lies round the harbour, in the shape of a half moon; the country beyond it rising gradually, and affording a delightful prospect from the sea. The head of the pier joins the principal street of the town, which is, like most of the others, spacious and well built. Boston contains at present about 18,000 inhabitants; 50 years ago they were more numerous. The surprising increase of Newbury port, Salem, Marblehead, Cape Ann, Plymouth, Dartmouth, and the island of Nantucket, hath checked the growth and trade of the capital. The trade of Boston is, however, so very considerable, that in the year 1768, 1200 sail entered or cleared at the Custom-house there.

Cambridge,

Cambridge, in the ſame province, four miles from Boſton, has an univerſity, containing two ſpacious colleges, called by the names of Harvard college, and Stoughton Hall, with a well furniſhed library. It conſiſts of a preſident, five fellows, a treaſurer, three profeſſors, four tutors, and a librarian. The college charter was firſt granted in 1650, and renewed in 1692, and is held under the colony ſeal.

The other towns in New-England, the chief of which have already been mentioned, are generally neat, well built, and commodiouſly ſituated upon fine rivers, with capacious harbours.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The trade of New-England is great, as it ſupplies a large quantity of goods from within itſelf; but it is yet greater, as the people of this country are in a manner the carriers for all the colonies of North America, and the Weſt Indies, and even for ſome parts of Europe. The commodities which the country yields, are principally, pig and bar iron, which is imported to Great Britain duty-free; alſo maſts and yards, pitch, tar, and turpentine, for which they contract largely with the royal navy; pot and pearl aſhes, ſtaves, lumber, boards; all ſorts of proviſions, which they ſend to the French and Dutch ſugar iſlands, and to Barbadoes, and the other Britiſh iſles, as grain, biſcuit, meal, beef, pork, butter, cheeſe, apples, cyder, onions, mackarel, and cod fiſh dried. They likewiſe ſend thither cattle, horſes, planks, hoops, ſhingles, pipe ſtaves, oil, tallow, turpentine, bark, calf ſkins and tobacco. Their peltry trade is not very conſiderable. They have a moſt valuable fiſhery upon their coaſts, in mackarel and cod, which employs vaſt numbers of their people, with the produce of which they trade to Spain, Italy, the Mediterranean, and Weſt-Indies, to a conſiderable amount. Their whale fiſhery has been already mentioned. The arts moſt neceſſary to ſubſiſtence are thoſe, which the inhabitants of New-England have been at pains to cultivate. They manufacture coarſe linen and woollen cloth for their own uſe; hats are made here, which in a clandeſtine way, find a good vent in all the other colonies. Sugar baking, diſtilling, paper making, and ſalt works, are upon the improving hand. The buſineſs of ſhip-building is one of the moſt conſiderable, which Boſton, or the other ſea port towns in New-England carry on. Ships are ſometimes built here upon commiſſion; but frequently, the merchants of New-England have them conſtructed upon their own account; and loading them with the produce of the colony, naval ſtores, fiſh, and fiſh oil principally, they ſend them out upon a trading voyage to Spain, Portugal, or the Mediterranean; where,

where, having diſpoſed of their cargo, they make what advantage they can by freight, until ſuch time as they can ſell the veſſel herſelf to advantage, which they ſeldom fail to do in a reaſonable time.

It was computed, that before the late unhappy differences aroſe, the amount of Engliſh manufactures, and India goods ſent into this colony from Great Britain, was not leſs at an average of three years, than 395,000 l. Our imports from the ſame were calculated at 370,500 l.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] New-England is at preſent divided into the four provinces of New-Hampſhire, Maſſachuſet's, Rhode Iſland, and Connecticut. As early as 1606, king James I. had by letters patent erected two companies, with a power to ſend colonies into thoſe parts, then comprehended under the general name of Virginia, as all the north eaſt coaſt of America was ſome time called. No ſettlements, however, were made in New-England, by virtue of this authority. The companies contented themſelves with ſending out a ſhip or two, to trade with the Indians for their furs, and to fiſh upon their coaſt. This continued to be the only ſort of correſpondence between Great Britain and this part of America, till the year 1621. By this time the religious diſſentions, by which England was torn to pieces, had become warm and furious. Laud perſecuted all ſorts of non-conformiſts with an unrelenting ſeverity. Thoſe men, on the other hand, were ready to ſubmit to all the rigour of perſecution, rather than depart from their favourite tenets, and conform to the ceremonies of the church of England, which they conſidered as abuſes of the moſt dangerous tendency. There was no part of the world into which they would not fly, rather than be compelled to adopt the practices which prevailed in their native country, and as they imagined endangered the eternal ſalvation of all who adhered to them. America opened an extenſive field. There they might tranſport themſelves, and eſtabliſh whatever ſort of religious policy they were inclined to. The deſign, beſides, had ſomething in it noble, and admirably ſuited to the enterpriſing ſpirit of innovators in religion. With this view, having purchaſed the territory, which was within the juriſdiction of the Plymouth company, and having obtained from the king the privilege of ſettling it in whatever way they had a mind, 150 perſons embarked for New-England, and built a city, which, becauſe they had ſailed from Plymouth, they called by that name. Notwithſtanding the ſeverity of the climate, the unwholeſomeneſs of the air, and the diſeaſes to which, after a long ſea voyage, and in a country, which was new to them, they were expoſed;

poſed; notwithſtanding the want of all ſort of conveniences, and even of many of the neceſſaries of life, thoſe who had conſtitutions fit to endure ſuch hardſhips, not diſpirited or broken by the death of their companions, and ſupported by the vigour then peculiar to Engliſhmen, and the ſatisfaction of finding themſelves beyond the reach of the ſpiritual arm, ſet themſelves to cultivate this ungrateful country, and to take the beſt ſteps for the advancement of their infant colony. New adventurers, encouraged by their example, and finding themſelves for the ſame reaſons, uneaſy at home, paſſed over into this land of religious and civil liberty. By the cloſe of the year 1630, they had built four towns, Salem, Dorcheſter, Charles Town, and Boſton, which has ſince become the capital of New-England. But as neceſſity is the natural ſource of that active and frugal induſtry, which produces every thing great among mankind, ſo an uninterrupted flow of proſperity and ſucceſs, occaſions thoſe diſſentions, which are the bane of human affairs, and often ſubvert the beſt founded eſtabliſhments.

The inhabitants of New-England, who had fled from perſecution, became in a ſhort time ſtrongly tainted with this illiberal vice, and were eager to introduce an uniformity in religion, among all who entered their territories. The minds of men were not in this age ſuperior to many prejudices; they had not that open and generous way of thinking, which at preſent diſtinguiſhes the natives of Great Britain; and the doctrine of univerſal toleration, which, to the honour of the firſt ſettlers in America, began to appear among them, had few abetters, and many opponents. In all perſuaſions the bigots are perſecutors; the men of a cool and reaſonable piety are favourers of toleration; becauſe the former ſort of men, not taking the pains to be acquainted with the grounds of their adverſaries tenets, conceive them to be ſo abſurd and monſtrous, that no man of ſenſe can give into them in good earneſt. For which reaſon they are convinced, that ſome oblique bad motive induces them to pretend to the belief of ſuch doctrines, and to the maintaining of them with obſtinacy. This is a very general principle in all religious differences, and it is the corner ſtone of all perſecution. It was not the general idea of the age, that men might live comfortably together in the ſame ſociety, without maintaining the ſame religious opinions, and wherever theſe were at variance, the members of different ſects kept at a diſtance from each other, and eſtabliſhed ſeparate governments. Hence ſeveral ſlips, torn from the original government of New-England, by religious violence, planted themſelves in a new ſoil, and ſpread

over

over the country. Such was that of New-Hampſhire, which continues to this day a ſeparate juriſdiction; ſuch too was that of Rhode Iſland, whoſe inhabitants were driven out from the Maſſachuſet colony (for that is the name by which the government firſt erected in New-England was diſtinguiſhed) for ſupporting the freedom of religious ſentiment, and maintaining that the civil magiſtrate had no right over the ſpeculative opinions of mankind. Theſe liberal men founded a city, called Providence, which they governed by their own principles; and ſuch is the connection between juſtneſs of ſentiment, and external proſperity, that the government of Rhode Iſland, though ſmall, is extremely populous and flouriſhing. Another colony driven out by the ſame perſecuting ſpirit, ſettled on the river Connecticut, and received frequent reinforcements from England, of ſuch as were diſſatisfied either with the religious or civil government of that country.

America indeed was now become the main reſource of all diſcontented and enterprizing ſpirits, and ſuch were the numbers which embarked for it from England, that in 1637 a proclamation was publiſhed, prohibiting any perſon from ſailing thither, without an expreſs licenſe from the government. For want of this licenſe, it is ſaid, that Oliver Cromwell, Mr. Hampden, and others of that party, were detained from going into New-England, after being a-ſhipboard for that purpoſe.

Theſe four provinces, though always confederates for their mutual defence, were at firſt, and ſtill continue under ſeparate juriſdictions. They were all of them by their charters originally free, and in a great meaſure independant of Great Britain. The inhabitants had the choice of their own magiſtrates, the governor, the council, the aſſembly, and the power of making ſuch laws, as they thought proper, without ſending them to Great Britain, for the approbation of the crown. Their laws, however, were not to be oppoſite to thoſe of Great Britain. Toward the latter end of the reign of Charles II. the Maſſachuſet's colony was accuſed of violating their charter, and by a judgment in the King's-Bench of England, was deprived of it. From that time to the Revolution, they remained without any charter. Soon after that period, they received a new one, which, though very favourable, was much inferior to the extenſive privilege of the former. The appointment of a governor, lieutenant-governor, ſecretary, and all the officers of the admiralty, is veſted in the crown; the power of the militia is wholly in the hands of the governor, as captain-general; all judges, juſtices, and ſheriffs, to whom the execution of the law is entruſted, are nominated by the

governor,

governor, with the advice of the council; the governor has a negative on the choice of counſellors, peremptory, and unlimited; and he is not obliged to give a reaſon for what he does in this particular, or reſtrained to any number; authentic copies of the ſeveral acts paſſed by this colony, as well as others, are to be tranſmitted to the court of England, for the royal approbation; but if the laws of this colony are not repealed within three years after they are preſented, they are not repealable by the crown after that time; that no laws, ordinances, election of magiſtrates, or acts of government whatſoever, are valid, without the governor's conſent in writing; and appeals for ſums above 300l. are admitted to the king and council. Notwithſtanding theſe reſtraints, the people have ſtill a great ſhare of power in this colony; for they not only chooſe the aſſembly, but this aſſembly, with the governor's concurrence, chooſe the council, reſembling our houſe of lords, and the governor depends upon the aſſembly for his annual ſupport; which has ſometimes tempted the governor of this province to give up the prerogative of the crown, and the intereſts of Great Britain.

To the Maſſachuſet's government is united the antient colony of Plymouth, and the territory called Main.

By the laws of this province no perſon can be arreſted, if there are any means of ſatisfaction; nor impriſoned, unleſs there be a concealment of effects. Adultery is death to both parties.

New-Hampſhire is ſtill more under the influence of Great Britain. The council itſelf is appointed by the crown, and in other reſpects it agrees with the former.

The colonies of Connecticut and Rhode Iſland, have preſerved their antient charters, and enjoy the ſame privileges which the Maſſachuſets did formerly.

There were originally three ſorts of governments eſtabliſhed by the Engliſh on the continent of America, viz. royal governments, charter governments, and proprietary governments.

A royal government is properly ſo called, becauſe the colony is immediately dependent on the crown; and the king remains ſovereign of the colony; he appoints the governor, council, and officers of ſtate, and the people only elect the repreſentatives, as in England; ſuch are the governments of Canada, Nova Scotia, Virginia, New-Hampſhire, New-York, New-Jerſey, and both Carolinas, Georgia, Eaſt and Weſt-Florida, the Weſt-India iſlands, and that of St. John's.

A charter government is ſo called, becauſe the company, incorporated by the king's charter, were in a manner veſted

with ſovereign authority, to eſtabliſh what ſort of government they thought fit; and theſe charter governments have generally transferred their authority to the people; for in ſuch governments, or rather corporations, the freemen do not only chooſe their repreſentatives, but annually chooſe their governor, council and magiſtrates, and make laws, without the concurrence, and even without the knowledge of the king; and are under no other reſtraint than this, that they enact no laws contrary to the laws of England; if they do, their charters are liable to be forfeited. Such, as we have already obſerved, are the governments of Rhode Iſland, and Connecticut, in New-England, and ſuch was that of the Maſſachuſet's formerly, but it appears now to be a mixture of both. Such likewiſe was the two Carolinas.

The third kind of government is the proprietary, properly ſo called, becauſe the proprietor is inveſted with ſovereign authority: he appoints the governor, council, and magiſtrates, and the repreſentatives are ſummoned in his name, and by their advice he enacts laws, without the concurrence of the crown; but, by a late ſtatute, the proprietor muſt have the king's conſent in the appointing a governor, when he does not reſide in the plantation in perſon, and of a deputy governor, when he does. And all the governors of the plantations are liable to be called to an account for their adminiſtration, by the court of King's Bench. The only proprietary governments now remaining, are thoſe of Penſylvania and Maryland.

NEW YORK.

Situation and extent.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	300	between	40 and 46 north latitude.
Breadth	150	between	72 and 76 weſt longitude.

Boundaries.] NEW YORK is bounded on the ſouth and ſouth-weſt, by Hudſon's and Delaware rivers, which divide it from New Jerſey and Penſylvania; on the eaſt and north-eaſt, by New England and the Atlantic Ocean; and on the north-weſt, by Canada.

This province, including the Iſland of New York, Long-Iſland, and Statin-Iſland, is divided into the ten following counties:

Counties.	Chief Towns.
New York — —	New York { 40-40 N. lat. 74-00 W. lon.
Albany — — —	Albany
Ulſter — — —	None
Ducheſs — —	
Orange — — —	Orange
Weſt-Cheſter — —	Weſt-Cheſter
King's — — —	None
Queen's — — —	Jamaica
Suffolk — — —	Southampton
Richmond — — —	Richmond.

RIVERS.] The principal of theſe are Hudſon's and the Mohawk; the former abounds with excellent harbours, and is well ſtored with great variety of fiſh: on this the cities of New York and Albany are ſituated. On the Mohawk is a large cataract, called the Cohoes, the water of which is ſaid to fall 70 feet perpendicular, where the river is a quarter of a mile in breadth.

CAPES.] Theſe are Cape May, on the eaſt entrance of Delaware river; Sandy-Hook, near the entrance of Raritan river; and Montock Point, at the caſt end of Long-Iſland.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] This province, lying to the ſouth of New England, enjoys a more happy temperature of climate. The air is very healthy, and agrees well with all conſtitutions. The face of the country, reſembling that of our other colonies in America, is low, flat, and marſhy towards the ſea. As you recede from the coaſt, the eye is entertained with the gradual ſwelling of hills, which become large in proportion as you advance into the country. The ſoil is extremely fertile, producing wheat, rye, Indian corn, oats, barley, flax, and fruits in great abundance and perfection. The timber is much the ſame with that of New England. A great deal of iron is found here.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] The Swedes and Dutch were the firſt Europeans who formed ſettlements on this part of the American coaſt. The tract claimed by the two nations, extended from the 38th to the 41ſt degree of latitude, and was called the New Netherlands. It continued in their hands till the time of Charles II. who obtained it from them by right of conqueſt in 1664, and it was confirmed to the Engliſh by the treaty of Breda, 1667. The New Netherlands were not long in our poſſeſſion, before they were divided into different provinces. New York took that name from the king's brother, James, duke of York, to whom the king granted

granted it, with full powers of government, by letters patent, dated March 20, 1664. On James's acceſſion to the throne, the right to New York became veſted in the crown, ſince which time it has been a royal government. The king appoints the governor and council; and the people, once in ſeven years, elect their repreſentatives to ſerve in general aſſembly. Theſe three branches of the legiſlature (anſwering to thoſe of Great Britain) have power to make any laws not repugnant to thoſe of England; but, in order to their being valid, the royal aſſent to them muſt firſt be obtained.

CITIES, POPULATION, COMMERCE, RELIGION AND LEARNING. The city of New York ſtands on the ſouth-weſt end of York-Iſland, which is twelve miles long, and near three in breadth, extremely well ſituated for trade, at the mouth of Hudſon's river, where it is three miles broad, and proves a noble conveyance from Albany and many other inland towns towards Canada and the lakes. This city is in length above a mile, and its mean breadth a quarter of a mile. The city and harbour are defended by a fort and battery: in the front is a ſpacious manſion houſe for the uſe of the governor. Many of the houſes are very elegant; and the city, though irregularly built, affords a fine proſpect. The greateſt part of the inhabitants, who are computed at 12 or 15,000, are deſcended from the Dutch families who remained here after the ſurrender of the New Netherlands to the Engliſh, and the whole province is ſuppoſed to contain between 80 and 100,000. The better ſort are rich and hoſpitable, the lower ranks are eaſy in their circumſtances; and both are endowed with a generous and liberal turn of mind, which renders their ſociety and converſation more agreeable than in moſt countries either of Europe or America.

The commerce of this province does not materially differ from that of New England. The commodities in which they trade are wheat, flour, barley, oats, beef, and other kinds of animal food. Their markets are the ſame with thoſe which the New Englanders uſe; and they have a ſhare in the log-wood trade, and that which is carried on with the Spaniſh and French plantations. They take almoſt the ſame ſort of commodities from England with the inhabitants of Boſton. At an average of three years, their exports are ſaid to amount to 526,000 l. and their imports from Great Britain to 531,000 l.

All religious denominations, except Jews and Papiſts, enjoy equal privileges here, as there is no eſtabliſhed church, unleſs the eighth article of the capitulation, made on the ſurrender of the place ("The Dutch ſhall enjoy the liberty of their conſciences in divine worſhip and church diſcipline") may be

termed an eſtabliſhment. Judaiſm is tolerated, but popery is not. The inhabitants of the province conſiſt chiefly of Dutch, Engliſh, and Scots preſbyterians, German Calviniſts, Lutherans, quakers, baptiſts, &c. who have their reſpective houſes of worſhip. The Dutch preſbyterians being in ſubordination to the Claſſis of Amſterdam, ſend all their youth, who are intended for the miniſtry, to Holland for ordination, as the epiſcopalians do theirs to England. The Engliſh preſbyterians are on the model of the church of Scotland*.

A college was erected in New York, by act of parliament, about the year 1755; but as the aſſembly was at that time divided into parties, it was formed on a contracted plan, and has for that reaſon never met with the encouragement which might naturally be expected for a public ſeminary in ſo populous a city. It contains at preſent about twenty ſtudents.

NEW JERSEY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 160 Breadth 60	between	39 and 43 north latitude. 74 and 76 weſt longitude.

BOUNDARIES. NEW JERSEY is bounded on the weſt and ſouth-weſt, by Delaware river and Bay; on the ſouth-eaſt and eaſt, by the Atlantic Ocean; and by the Sound, which ſeparates Staten Iſland from the continent, and Hudſon's river, on the north.

Diviſions.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
Eaſt diviſion contains	Middleſex	Perth-Amboy and New-Brunſwick
	Monmouth	None
	Eſſex	Elizabeth and Newark
	Somerſet	None
	Bergen	Bergen.
Weſt diviſion contains	Burlington	BURLINGTON 40-8 N. lat. 75-0 W. lon.
	Glouceſter	Glouceſter
	Salem	Salem
	Cumberland	Hopewell
	Cape May	None
	Hunterdon	Trenton
	Morris	Morris
	Suſſex	None.

* In the year 1770, the number of places for public worſhip in the city of New York ſtood as follows;

Dutch preſbyterians	—	3	Baptiſts	—	1
Engliſh ditto	—	2	Moravians	—	1
Scotch ditto	—	1	German Calviniſts	—	2
Epiſcopalians	—	3	——— Lutherans	—	1
French refugees	—	1	Methodiſts	---	1
Quakers	—	1	Jews	---	1

RIVERS.] Theſe are Delaware, Raritan, and Paſſaick, on the latter of which is a remarkable cataract; the height of the rock from which the water falls is ſaid to be about 70 feet perpendicular, and the river there 80 yards broad.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The climate is much the ſame with that of New York; the ſoil is various, at leaſt one fourth part of the province is barren ſandy land, producing pines and cedars; the other parts in general are good, and produce wheat, barley, rye, Indian corn, &c. in great perfection.

HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, POPULATION, CHIEF TOWNS, COMMERCE, RELIGION, AND LEARNING. } New Jerſey is part of that vaſt tract of land, which we have obſerved was given by king Charles II. to his brother, James duke of York: he ſold it, for a valuable conſideration, to lord Berkley and Sir George Carteret, (from whom it received its preſent name, becauſe Sir George had, as the family ſtill have, eſtates in the iſland of Jerſey) and they again to others, who in the year 1702 made a ſurrender of the powers of government to queen Anne, which ſhe accepted: ſince that time it has been a royal government. By an account publiſhed in 1765, the number of inhabitants appears to have been about 100,000. Perth-Amboy and Burlington are the ſeats of government; the governor generally reſides in the latter, which is pleaſantly ſituated on the fine river Delaware, within 20 miles of Philadelphia. The former is as good a port as moſt on the continent; and the harbour is ſafe, and capacious enough to contain many large ſhips. This province has no foreign trade worth mentioning, owing to its vicinity to the large trading cities of New York and Philadelphia, by which it is ſupplied with merchandizes of all kinds, and makes returns to them in lumber, wheat, flour, &c. In Bergen county is a very valuable copper mine.

RELIGION AND LEARNING.] The ſtate of religion here may be ſeen by the following liſt of the houſes for public worſhip throughout the province, which was made in 1765 by a member of the council for the province *.

Learning has of late been greatly encouraged in this province. A college was eſtabliſhed at the town of Princeton, by governor Belcher in 1746, and has a power of conferring

* Engliſh and Scotch preſbyterians	57	Moravians	1
Quakers	39	Separatiſts	1
Dutch preſbyterians	22	Rogereens	1
Epiſcopalians	22		
Baptiſts	22	In all	172
Lutherans	7		

degrees as Oxford or Cambridge. There are generally between 80 and 100 ſtudents here, who come from all parts of the continent, ſome even from the extremities of it.

PENSYLVANIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 300 / Breadth 240	between	74 and 81 W. longitude. / 39 and 44 N. latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the country of the Iroquois, or five nations, on the north; by Delaware river, which divides it from the Jerſeys, on the eaſt; and by Maryland, on the ſouth and weſt, and contains the following counties.

Counties.	Chief Towns.
Philadelphia	PHILADELPHIA, N. lat. 40. W. lon. 75-20.
Cheſter	Cheſter
Bucks	Newtown
Berks	Reading
Northampton	Eaſton
Lancaſter	Lancaſter
York	York
Cumberland	Carliſle

Beſides the above, there are the three following

Counties,		Chief Towns.
Newcaſtle		Newcaſtle
Kent and	on Delaware	Dover
Suſſex		Lewes,

which form in ſome meaſure a diſtinct government, having an aſſembly of their own, though the ſame governor with the province of Penſylvania.

RIVERS.] The rivers are Delaware, which is navigable for veſſels of one ſort or other, more than 200 miles above Philadelphia. Suſquehanna, and Schuylkill, are alſo navigable a conſiderable way up the country. Theſe rivers, with the numerous bays and creeks, in Delaware bay, capable of containing the largeſt fleets, render this province admirably ſuited to carry on an inland and foreign trade.

CLIMATE, AIR, SOIL, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The face of the country, air, ſoil, and produce, do not materially differ from that of New-York. If there be any difference, it is in favour of this province. The air is ſweet

ſweet and clear. The winters continue from December till March, and are ſo extremely cold and ſevere, that the river Delaware, though very broad, is often frozen over. The months of July, Auguſt, and September, are almoſt intolerably hot, but the country is refreſhed by frequent cold breezes. It may be remarked in general, that in all parts of our plantations from New-York to the ſouthern extremity, the woods are full of wild vines of three or four ſpecies, all different from thoſe we have in Europe. But, whether from ſome fault in their nature, or in the climate, or the ſoil where they grow, or what is much more probable, from a fault in the planters, they have yet produced no wine that deſerves to be mentioned, though the Indians from them make a ſort of wine, with which they regale themſelves. It may alſo be obſerved of the timber of theſe colonies, that towards the ſouth it is not ſo good for ſhipping, as that of the more northern provinces. The further ſouthward you go, the timber becomes leſs compact, and rives eaſily; which property, as it renders it leſs ſerviceable for ſhips, makes it more uſeful for ſtaves.

HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, SETTLEMENT, POPULATION, CHIEF TOWNS, AND COMMERCE.

This country, under the name of the New Netherlands, was originally poſſeſſed by the Dutch and Swedes. When theſe nations, however, were expelled from New-York, by the Engliſh, admiral Pen, who, in conjunction with Venables, had conquered the iſland of Jamaica, being well with Charles II. obtained a promiſe of a grant of this country from that monarch. Upon the admiral's death, his ſon, the celebrated quaker, availed himſelf of this promiſe, and after much court ſollicitation, obtained the performance of it. Though as an author and a divine, Mr. Pen be little known, but to thoſe of his own perſuaſion, his reputation in a character no leſs reſpectable, is univerſal among all civilized nations. The circumſtances of the times engaged vaſt numbers to follow him into his new ſettlement, to avoid the perſecutions, to which the quakers, like other ſectaries, were then expoſed, but it was to his own wiſdom and ability, that they are indebted for that charter of privileges, which has put this colony on ſo reſpectable a footing. Civil and religious liberty in the utmoſt latitude, was laid down by that great man, as the great and only foundation of all his inſtitutions. Chriſtians of all denominations might not only live unmoleſted, but have a ſhare in the government of the colony *. No laws

* At preſent the church of England is but barely tolerated here.

can be made but by the consent of the inhabitants. Even matters of benevolence, to which the laws of few nations have extended, were by Penn subjected to regulations. The affairs of widows and orphans were to be inquired into by a court constituted for that purpose. The causes between man and man were not to be subjected to the delay and chicanery of the law, but decided by wise and honest arbitrators. His benevolence and generosity extended also to the Indian nations: instead of immediately taking advantage of his patent, he purchased of these people the lands he had obtained by his grant, judging that the original property, and eldest right, was vested in them. William Penn, in short, had he been a native of Greece, would have had his statue placed next to that of Solon and Lycurgus. His laws, founded on the solid basis of equity, still maintain their force; and as a proof of their effects, it is only necessary to mention that land is now granted at twelve pounds an hundred acres, with a quit-rent of four shillings reserved, whereas the terms on which it was formerly granted where at twenty pound the thousand acres, with one shilling quit-rent for every hundred. Near Philadelphia, land rents at twenty shillings the acre, and even at several miles distance from that city, sells at twenty years purchase.

In some years, more people have transported themselves into Pensylvania, than into all the other settlements together. In short, this province has increased so greatly from the time of its first establishment, that the number of inhabitants in the whole province, is computed at 350,000. Upon the principal rivers settlements are made, and the country cultivated 150 miles above Philadelphia. The people are hardy, industrious, and most of them substantial, though but few of the landed people can be considered as rich; but they are all well lodged, well fed, and, for their condition, well clad; and this at the more easy rate, as the inferior people manufacture most of their own wear, both linens and woollens.

This province contains many very considerable towns, such as German town, Chester, Oxford, Radnor, all which, in any other colony, would deserve being taken notice of more particularly. But here the city of Philadelphia, containing upwards of 30,000 inhabitants, beautiful beyond any city of America, and in regularity unequalled by any in Europe, totally eclipses the rest, and deserves all our attention. It was built after the plan of the famous Penn, the founder and legislator of this colony. It is situated 100 miles from the sea, between two navigable rivers, the Delaware, where it is above a mile in breadth on the north, and the Schuylkill, on the south, which it unites as it were, by running in a line of two

miles

miles between them. The whole town, when the original plan can be fully executed, is in this manner; every quarter of the city forms a ſquare of eight acres, and almoſt in the center of it, is a ſquare of ten acres, ſurrounded by the town-houſe, and other public buildings. The High Street is 100 feet wide, and runs the whole breadth of the town: parallel to it run nineteen other ſtreets, which are croſſed by eight more at right angles, all of them 30 feet wide, and communicating with canals, from the two rivers, which add not only to the beauty, but to the wholeſomeneſs of the city. According to the original plan, every man in poſſeſſion of 1000 acres in the province, had his houſe either in one of the fronts, facing the rivers, or in the High Street, running from the middle of one front, to the middle of the other. Every owner of 5000 acres, beſides the above-mentioned privilege, was entitled to have an acre of ground in the front of his houſe, and all others might have half an acre for gardens and court yards. The proprietor's ſeat, which is the uſual place of the governor's reſidence, and is about a mile above the town, is the firſt private building both for magnificence and ſituation in all Britiſh America. The barracks for the king's troops, the market and other public buildings, are proportionably grand. The quays are ſpacious and fine, the principal quay is 200 feet wide, and to this a veſſel of 500 tuns may lay her broadſide, though above 100 miles from the ſea.

There are in this city a great number of very wealthy merchants; which is no way ſurprizing, when we conſider the great trade which it carries on with the Engliſh, Spaniſh, French and Dutch colonies in America; with the Azores, the Canaries, and the Madeira iſlands; with Great Britain and Ireland; with Spain, Portugal and Holland. Beſides the Indian trade, and the quantity of grain, proviſions, and all kinds of the produce of this province, which is brought down the rivers upon which this city is ſo commodiouſly ſituated, the Germans, who are ſettled in the interior parts of this province, employ ſeveral hundred waggons, drawn each by four horſes, in bringing the product of their farms to this market. In the year 1749, 303 veſſels entered inwards at this port, and 291 cleared outwards.

The commodities exported from Great Britain into Penſylvania, at an average of three years, amount to the value of 611,000l. Thoſe exported to Great Britain and other markets, beſides timber, ſhips built for ſale, copper ore, and iron in pigs and bars, conſiſt of grain, flour, and many ſorts of animal

animal food; and at an average of three years, are calculated at 705,500 l.

There is a flourishing academy established at Philadelphia, which has been greatly encouraged by contributions from England, and Scotland, and which bids fair to become a bright seminary of learning.

MARYLAND.

Situation and extent.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 140	between	75 and 80 W. longitude.
Breadth 135		37 and 40 N. latitude.

Boundaries.] Bounded by Pensylvania, on the north; by another part of Pensylvania, and the Atlantic ocean, on the east; by Virginia, on the south; and by the Apalachian mountains, on the west.

Maryland is divided into two parts by the bay of Chesapeak, viz. 1. The eastern; and 2. The western division.

Divisions.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
The east division contains the counties of	Worcester	Princess Anne
	Somerset	Snow Hill
	Dorset	Dorset, or Dorchester
	Talbot	Oxford
	Cecil	
	Queen Anne's	Queen's Town
	Kent	Chester.
The west division contains	St. Mary's county	St. Mary's
	Charles county	Bristol
	Prince George county	Masterkout
	Calvert county	Abington
	Arundel county	Annapolis, W. lon. 76-50. N. lat. 39.
	Baltimore county	Baltimore.
	Frederic county	

Rivers.] This country is indented with a vast number of navigable creeks and rivers. The chief are Patowmac, Pocomoac, Patuxent, Cheptonk, Severn and Sassafras.

Face of the country, air, soil and produce.] In these particulars this province has nothing particular by which it may be distinguished from those already described. The hills in the inland country are of so easy ascent, that they rather seem an artificial than a natural production. The vast number of rivers diffuses fertility through the soil, which is admirably adapted to the rearing of tobacco, which is the staple

ſtaple commodity of that country, hemp, Indian corn and grain, which they now begin to cultivate in preference to tobacco.

COMMERCE.] The commerce of Maryland depends on the ſame principles with that of Virginia, and is ſo cloſely connected with it, that any ſeparation of them would rather confuſe than edify. It will be conſidered therefore under that head.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] It ſeems as if all the provinces of North America were planted from motives of religion. Maryland, like thoſe we have formerly deſcribed, owes its ſettlement to religious conſiderations. As they however were peopled by proteſtants, and even ſectaries, Maryland was originally planted by Roman-catholics. This ſect, towards the cloſe of Charles I.'s reign, was the object of great hatred with the bulk of the Engliſh nation; the laws in force againſt the Roman-catholics, were executed with the utmoſt ſeverity. This in part aroſe from an opinion, perhaps not without ſome foundation, that the court was too favourably diſpoſed towards this form of religion. It is certain, that many marks of favour were conferred on Roman-catholics. Lord Baltimore was one of the moſt eminent, one in greateſt favour with the court, and on that account moſt odious to the generality of Engliſhmen. This nobleman, in 1632, obtained a grant from Charles of that country, which formerly was conſidered as a part of Virginia, but was now called Maryland, in honour of queen Henrietta Mary, daughter to Henry IV. and ſpouſe to king Charles. The year following about 200 popiſh families, ſome of conſiderable diſtinction, embarked with lord Baltimore, to enter into poſſeſſion of this new territory. Theſe ſettlers, who had that liberality and good breeding, which diſtinguiſhes gentlemen of every religion, bought their lands at an eaſy price from the native Indians; they even lived with them for ſome time in the ſame city; and the ſame harmony continued to ſubſiſt between the two nations, until the Indians were impoſed on by the malicious inſinuations of ſome planters in Virginia, who envied the proſperity of this popiſh colony, and inflamed the Indians againſt them by ill-grounded reports, but ſuch as were ſufficient to ſtir up the reſentment of men naturally jealous, and who from experience had reaſon to be ſo. The colony, however, was not wanting to its own ſafety on this occaſion. Though they continued their friendly intercourſe with the natives, they took care to erect a fort, and to uſe every other precaution for their defence againſt ſudden hoſtilities; the defeat of this attempt gave a new ſpring to the activity of this plantation: which was likewiſe receiving frequent reinforcements from England of thoſe who found themſelves

themſelves in danger by the approaching revolution. But during the protectorſhip of Cromwell, every thing was overturned in Maryland. Baltimore was ungenerouſly deprived of his rights, and a new governor, appointed by the protector, ſubſtituted in his room. At the reſtoration, however, the property of this province reverted to its natural poſſeſſor. Baltimore was reinſtated in his rights, and fully diſcovered how well he deſerved to be ſo. He eſtabliſhed a perfect toleration in all religious matters: the colony encreaſed and flouriſhed, and diſſenters of all denominations, allured by the proſpect of gain, flocked into Maryland. The tyrannical government of James II. which without diſcernment of friends or enemies, but with the fury of a mad-dog, ſnapped at every thing before it, again deprived this noble family of their poſſeſſion, acquired by royal bounty, and improved by much care and expence. At the revolution, however, lord Baltimore was again reſtored to all the profits of the government, though not to the right of governing, which could not conſiſtently be conferred on a Roman-catholic. But ſince the family have changed their religion, they have obtained the power as well as the intereſt. At preſent but a ſmall part of it belongs to that family. The government of this country exactly reſembles that in Virginia, except that the governor is appointed by the proprietors, and only confirmed by the crown. The cuſtoms too are reſerved to the crown, and the officers belonging to them are independent of the government of the province. So far is Maryland from being at preſent a popiſh government, that the proteſtants, by far more numerous, have excluded them from all offices of truſt and power. They have even adopted the penal laws of England againſt them. The church of England is by law eſtabliſhed here, and the clergy are paid in tobacco: a tax for this purpoſe is annually levied, and every male white perſon above the age of 16 is obliged to pay 40 lb. of tobacco (or if he raiſes no tobacco, he muſt take an oath that he does not, and pay the value in caſh;) diſſenting clergy are not exempted.

VIRGINIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 750	between	75 and 90 W. longitude.
Breadth 240		36 and 40 N. latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the river Patowmac, which divides it from Maryland, on the north-eaſt; by the Atlantic ocean, on the eaſt; by Carolina, on the ſouth; and by the river Miſſiſippi, on the weſt.

It may be divided into four parts, viz. The north: The middle: The ſouth: And, the eaſtern diviſion.

Diviſions.	Counties.	Pariſhes.
The north diviſion contains	1. Northumberland	Wincomoca
	2. Lancaſhire	Chriſt-Church
	3. Weſtmoreland	
	4. Richmond	
	5. Stafford	St. Paul's.
The middle diviſion contains	6. Eſſex	Farnham
	7. Middleſex	Chriſt-Church
	8. Glouceſter	Abingdon
	9. King and Queen county	Stratton
	10. King William county	St. John's
	11. New Kent	St. Peter's
	12. Elizabeth county	Elizabeth
	13. Warwick county	Denby
	14. York county	York
	15. Princeſs Anne county	Lynhaven.
The ſouth diviſion contains	16. Norfolk county	Elizabeth
	17. Nanſamund county	Chutakuk
	18. Iſle of Wight county	Newport
	19. Surry county	Southwark
	20. Prince George county	Wyanoke
	21. Charles county	Weſtover
	22. Henrico county	Briſtol
	23. James county	James Town
		WILLIAMSBURG, 37-15 N. 76-50 W.
The eaſtern diviſion between Cheſapeak bay and the ocean	24. Acomac county	Acomac.

CAPES, BAYS AND RIVERS.] In ſailing to Virginia or Maryland, you paſs a ſtreight between two points of land, called the Capes of Virginia, which opens a paſſage into the bay of Cheſapeak, one of the largeſt and ſafeſt in the whole world; for it enters the country near 300 miles from the ſouth to the north, is about 18 miles broad for a conſiderable way, and ſeven where it is narroweſt, the waters in moſt places being nine fathoms deep. This bay, through its whole extent, receives a vaſt number of navigable rivers from the ſides of both Maryland and Virginia. From the latter, beſides others of leſs note, it receives James River, York River, the Rappahannock, and the Patowmac; theſe are not only navigable for large ſhips into the heart of the country, but have ſo many creeks, and receive ſuch a number of ſmaller navigable rivers, that Virginia is without all manner of doubt the country of

the world of the moſt convenient navigation. It has been obſerved, and the obſervation is not exaggerated, that every planter has a river at his door.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The whole face of this country is ſo extremely low towards the ſea, that you are very near the ſhore, before you can diſcover land from the maſt-head. The lofty trees, which cover the ſoil, gradually riſe as it were from the ocean, and afford an enchanting proſpect. You travel 100 miles into the country, without meeting with a hill, which is nothing uncommon on this extenſive coaſt of North America.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] In ſummer the heats here are exceſſive, tho' not without refreſhing breezes from the ſea. The weather is changeable, and the changes ſudden and violent. Their winter froſts come on with the leaſt warning. To a warm day, there ſometimes ſucceeds ſuch an intenſe cold in the evening as to freeze over the largeſt rivers.

The air and ſeaſons here depend very much upon the wind, as to heat and cold, dryneſs and moiſture. In winter they have a fine clear air, and dry, which renders it very pleaſant. Their ſpring is about a month earlier than in England; in April they have frequent rains; in May and June, the heat increaſes; and the ſummer is much like ours, being refreſhed with gentle breezes from the ſea, that riſe about nine o'clock, and decreaſe and increaſe as the ſun riſes or falls. In July and Auguſt theſe breezes ceaſe, and the air becomes ſtagnant, and violently hot; in September the weather generally changes, when they have heavy and frequent rains, which occaſion all the train of diſeaſes incident to a moiſt climate, particularly agues, and intermitting fevers. They have frequent thunder and lightning, but it rarely does any miſchief.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] Towards the ſea-ſhore, and the banks of the rivers, the ſoil of Virginia conſiſts of a dark rich mould, which, without manure, returns plentifully whatever is committed to it. At a diſtance from the water there is a lightneſs and ſandineſs in the ſoil, which however is of a generous nature, and helped by a kindly ſun, yields corn and tobacco extremely well.

From what has been ſaid of the ſoil and climate, it is eaſy to infer the variety and perfection of the vegetable productions of this country. The foreſts are covered with all ſorts of lofty trees; and no underwood or bruſhes grow beneath; ſo that people travel with eaſe through the foreſts on horſeback, under a fine ſhade, to defend them from the ſun; the plains are enamelled with flowers and flowering ſhrubs of the richeſt colours, and moſt fragrant ſcent. Silk grows ſpontaneous in

many places, the fibres of which are as ſtrong as hemp. Medicinal herbs and roots, particularly the ſnake root, and the ginſeng of the Chineſe, are here in great plenty. There is no ſort of grain but might be cultivated to advantage. The inhabitants however are ſo engroſſed with the culture of the tobacco plant, that they think, if corn ſufficient for their ſupport can be reared, they do enough in this way. But flax and hemp are produced not only for their own conſumption, but for export, though not in ſuch quantities as they might be expected from the nature of the ſoil, admirably fitted for producing this commodity.

ANIMALS.] We ſhall here obſerve, that there were neither horſes, cows, ſheep, nor hogs in America, before they were carried thither by the Europeans; but now they are multiplied ſo extremely that many of them, particularly in Virginia, and the ſouthern colonies, run wild. Beef and pork is ſold here from one penny to twopence a pound; their fatteſt pullets at ſixpence a-piece; chickens, at three or four ſhillings a dozen; geeſe, at ten pence; and turkeys, at eighteen pence a-piece. But fiſh, and wild fowl, are ſtill cheaper in the ſeaſon, and deer are ſold from five to ten ſhillings a-piece. This eſtimate may ſerve for the other American colonies, where proviſions are equally plentiful and cheap, and in ſome ſtill lower. Beſides the animals tranſported from Europe, thoſe natural to the country are deer, of which there are great numbers, a ſort of panther or tyger, bears, wolves, foxes, and racoons. Here is likewiſe that ſingular animal, called the Opoſſum, which ſeems to be the wood-rat mentioned by Charlevoix, in his hiſtory of Canada. It is about the ſize of a cat, and beſides the belly common to it with other animals, it has another peculiar to itſelf, and which hangs beneath the former. This belly has a large aperture, towards the hinder legs, which diſcovers a large number of teats on the uſual part of the common belly. Upon theſe, when the female of this creature conceives, the young are formed, and there they hang like fruit upon the ſtalk, until they grow in bulk and weight to their appointed ſize; then they drop off, and are received into the falſe belly, from which they go out at pleaſure, and in which they take refuge when any danger threatens them. In Virginia there are all ſorts of tame and wild fowl. They have the nightingale, called from the country, whoſe plumage is crimſon and blue; the mocking bird, thought to excel all others in his own note, and including that of every one; the humming bird, the ſmalleſt of all the winged creation, and by far the moſt beautiful, all arrayed in ſcarlet, green and gold. It ſips the dew from the flowers, which

which is all its nourifhment, and is too delicate to be brought alive into England.

HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, POPULATION, TOWNS, AND COMMERCE. This is the firft country which the Engliſh planted in America. We derived our right, not only to this, but to all our other ſettlements, as has been already obſerved, from the diſcovery of Sebaſtian Cabot, who, in 1497, firſt made the northern continent of America, in the ſervice of Henry VII. of England. No attempts, however, were made to ſettle it, till the reign of queen Elizabeth. It was then that Sir Walter Raleigh, the moſt extraordinary genius of the age in which he lived, perhaps in any age, applied to court, and got together a company which was compoſed of ſeveral perſons of diſtinction and ſeveral eminent merchants, who agreed to open a trade and ſettle a colony in that part of the world, which, in honour of queen Elizabeth, he called Virginia. Towards the cloſe of the ſixteenth century, ſeveral attempts were made for ſettling this colony before any proved ſucceſsful. The three firſt companies who ſailed into Virginia periſhed through hunger and diſeaſes, or were cut off by the Indians. The fourth was reduced almoſt to the ſame ſituation; and, being dwindled to a feeble remainder, had ſet ſail for England, in deſpair of living in ſuch an uncultivated country, inhabited by ſuch hoſtile and warlike ſavages. But in the mouth of Cheſapeak bay, they were met by lord Delawar, with a ſquadron loaded with proviſions, and with every thing neceſſary for their relief and defence. At his perſuaſion they returned: by his advice, his prudence, and winning behaviour, the government of the colony was ſettled within itſelf, and put on a reſpectable footing with regard to its enemies. This nobleman, who had accepted the government of the unpromiſing province of Virginia from the nobleſt motives, was compelled, by the decayed ſtate of his health, to return into England. He left behind him, however, his ſon, as deputy; with Sir Thomas Gates, Sir George Summers, the honourable George Piercy, and Mr. Newport, for his council. By them, James-Town, the firſt town built by the Engliſh in the new world, was erected. The colony continued to flouriſh, and the true ſources of its wealth began to be diſcovered and improved. The firſt ſettlers, like thoſe of Maryland, were generally perſons of conſideration and diſtinction. It remained a ſteady ally to the royal party during the troubles of Great Britain. Many of the Cavaliers, in danger at home, took refuge here; and under the government of Sir William Berkley, held out for the crown, until the parliament, rather by ſtratagem than force, reduced them. After the

the Reſtoration, there is nothing very intereſting in the hiſtory of this province. Soon after this time, a young gentleman, named Bacon, a lawyer, availing himſelf of ſome diſcontents in the colony, on account of reſtraints on trade, became very popular, and ſet every thing in confuſion. His natural death, however, reſtored peace and unanimity; and the inhabitants of Virginia ceaſed to deſtroy themſelves.

The government of this province was not at firſt adapted to the principles of the Engliſh conſtitution, and to the enjoyment of that liberty to which a ſubject of Great-Britain thinks himſelf entitled in every part of the globe. It was governed by a governor and council, appointed by the king of Great-Britain. As the inhabitants encreaſed, the inconveniency of this form became more grievous; and a new branch was added to the conſtitution, by which the people, who had formerly no conſideration, were allowed to elect their repreſentatives from each county, into which this country is divided, with privileges reſembling thoſe of the repreſentatives of the commons of England. Thus two houſes, the upper and lower houſe of aſſembly, were formed. The upper houſe, which was before called the council, remained on its former footing; its members are appointed, during pleaſure, by the crown; they are ſtiled Honourable, and anſwer in ſome meaſure to the houſe of peers in the Britiſh conſtitution. The lower houſe is the guardian of the peoples liberties. And thus, with a governor repreſenting the king, an upper and lower houſe of aſſembly, this government bears a ſtriking reſemblance to our own. When any bill has paſſed the two houſes, it comes before the governor, who gives his aſſent or negative as he thinks proper. It now acquires the force of a law, until it be tranſmitted to England, and his majeſty's pleaſure known on that ſubject. The upper houſe of aſſembly acts not only as a part of the legiſlature, but alſo as a privy-council to the governor, without whoſe concurrence he can do nothing of moment: it ſometimes acts as a court of Chancery.

The number of white people in Virginia, which is daily encreaſing, is ſuppoſed to amount to above 100,000. The negroes, of whom ſome thouſands are annually imported into Virginia and Maryland, are at leaſt as many; they thrive too much better here than in the Weſt Indies. The inhabitants of Virginia are a chearful, hoſpitable, and in general a genteel ſort of people: ſome of them are accuſed of vanity and oſtentation; which accuſation is not without ſome ground. Here are only two towns that deſerve that name; the largeſt of which, and the capital of the province, is Williamſburg,

containing about ſixty houſes, and ſome ſpacious public buildings.

In the following account of the commerce of Virginia, is alſo included that of Maryland. Theſe provinces are ſuppoſed to export, of tobacco alone, to the annual value of 768,000 l. into Great-Britain. This, at eight pounds per hogſhead, makes the number of hogſheads amount to 96,000. Of theſe, it is computed that about 13,500 hogſheads are conſumed at home, the duty on which, at 26 l. 1 s. per hogſhead, comes to 351,675 l. the remaining 82,500 hogſheads are exported by our merchants to the other countries of Europe, and their value returned to Great-Britain. The advantages of this trade appear by the bare mention of it. It may not be improper to add, that this ſingle branch employs 330 ſail of ſhips, and 7960 ſeamen. Not only our wealth therefore, but the very ſinews of our national ſtrength are powerfully braced by it. The other commodities of theſe colonies, of which naval ſtores, wheat, Indian corn, iron in pigs and bars, are the moſt conſiderable, make the whole exportation, at an average of three years, amount to 1,040,000 l. The exports of Great-Britain, the ſame as to our other colonies, at a like average, come to 865,000 l.

Though an intire toleration be allowed to all religions in this country, there are few diſſenters from the church of England. The biſhop of London ſends over a ſuperintendant to inſpect the character of the clergy; who live comfortably here, (a prieſt to each pariſh) with about 100 l. per annum, paid in tobacco.

Here is alſo a college, founded by king William, called William and Mary college, who gave 2000 l. towards it, and 20,000 acres of land, with power to purchaſe and hold lands to the value of 2000 l. a year, and a duty of one penny per pound on all tobacco exported to the other plantations. There is a preſident, ſix profeſſors, and other officers, who are named by the governors or viſitors. The honourable Mr. Boyle made a very large donation to the college for the education of Indian children.

NORTH and SOUTH CAROLINA, with GEORGIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 700	between	76 and 91 weſt longitude.
Breadth 380		30 and 37 north latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Virginia, on the north; by the Atlantic ocean, on the east; by the river St. John, which separates Georgia from Florida, on the south; and by the Miſſiſippi, on the weſt.

Diviſions.	Counties.	Towns.
North Carolina contains the counties of	Albemarle —— Bath county, and Clarendon in part	Divided into pariſhes, but have no towns.
The middle diviſion, or South Carolina, contains the counties of	Clarendon in part	St. James
	Craven county —	Chriſt-Church
	Berkley county —	
	Colleton county —	CHARLES-TOWN, W. lon. 79-15. N. lat. 32-45.
	Granville county —	Port-Royal.
The ſouth-diviſion contains only	Georgia ——	Savannah, Frederica, Puriſburgh.

RIVERS.] Theſe are the Roanoke, or Albemarle river; Pamtico; Neus; Cape Fear, or Clarendon river; Pedee; Santee; Savannah; Alatamaha, or George river, and St. Mary's, which divides Georgia from Florida: all which rivers riſe in the Apalachian mountains, and running eaſt, fall into the Atlantic Ocean. The back parts are watered by the Cherokees, Yaſous, Mobile, Apalachicola, the Pearl river, and many other noble ſtreams which fall into the Miſſiſippi or the gulph of Mexico.

SEAS, BAYS, AND CAPES.] The only ſea bordering on this country is that of the Atlantic ocean; which is ſo ſhallow near the coaſt, that a ſhip of any great burden cannot approach it, except in ſome few places. There has not yet been found one good harbour in North Carolina; the beſt are thoſe of Roanoke, at the mouth of Albemarle river, and Pamtico. In South Carolina, there are the harbours of Winyaw, or George-Town, Charles-Town, and Port-Royal. In Georgia, the mouths of the rivers Savannah and Alatamaha form good harbours.

The moſt remarkable promontories are, Cape Hatteras, in 35 deg. odd minutes north lat. Cape Fear to the ſouth of it, and Cape Cartaret ſtill further ſouth.

CLIMATE AND AIR.] There is not any conſiderable difference between the climate of theſe countries. In general it agrees with that of Virginia; but, where they differ, it is much to the advantage of Carolina. The ſummers indeed

are of a more intenſe heat than in Virginia, but the winters are milder and ſhorter. The climate of Carolina, like all American weather, is ſubject to ſudden tranſitions from heat to cold, and from cold to heat; but not to ſuch violent extremities as Virginia. The winters are ſeldom ſevere enough to freeze any conſiderable water, affecting only the mornings and evenings; the froſts have never ſufficient ſtrength to reaſt the noon-day ſun; ſo that many tender plants, which do not ſtand the winter of Virginia, flouriſh in Carolina, for they have oranges in great plenty near Charles-Town, and excellent in their kinds, both ſweet and ſour.

SOIL, PRODUCE, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY. In this reſpect too there is a conſiderable coincidence between theſe countries and Virginia: the Carolinas, however, in the fertility of nature, have the advantage; but Georgia is not of near ſo good a ſoil as the other provinces. The whole country is in a manner one foreſt, where our planters have not cleared it. The trees are almoſt the ſame in every reſpect with thoſe produced in Virginia; and by the different ſpecies of theſe, the quality of the ſoil is eaſily known. The land in Carolina is eaſily cleared, as there is little or no underwood, and the foreſts moſtly conſiſt of tall trees at a conſiderable diſtance. Thoſe grounds which bear the oak, the walnut, and the hickory, are extremely fertile; they are of a dark ſand intermixed with loam; and as all their land abounds with nitre, it is a long time before it is exhauſted; for here they never uſe any manure. The pine barren is the worſt of all; this is an almoſt perfectly white ſand, yet it bears the pine tree, and ſome other uſeful plants naturally, yielding good profit in pitch, tar, and turpentine. When this ſpecies of land is cleared, for two or three years together it produces very good crops of Indian corn and peaſe; and, when it lies low, and is flooded, it even anſwers for rice. But what is moſt fortunate for this province is, that this worſt part of its land is favourable to a ſpecies of the moſt valuable of all its products, to one of the kinds of indigo. The low, rich, ſwampy grounds, bear their great ſtaple, rice. The country near the ſea is much the worſt, in many parts little better than an unhealthy ſalt marſh; for Carolina is all an even plain for 80 miles from the ſea, not a hill, not a rock, nor ſcarce even a pebble to be met with. But the country, as you advance in it, improves continually; and at 100 miles diſtance from Charles-Town, where it begins to grow hilly, the ſoil is of a prodigious fertility, fitted for every purpoſe of human life; nor can any thing be imagined more pleaſant to the eye than the variegated diſpoſition of this back country. Here

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the air is pure and wholeſome, and the ſummer heat much more temperate than in the flat ſandy coaſt.

In Carolina, the vegetation of every kind of plant is incredibly quick. The climate and ſoil have ſomething in them ſo kindly, that the latter, when left to itſelf, naturally throws out an immenſe quantity of flowers and flowering ſhrubs. All the European plants arrive at perfection here beyond that in which their native country affords them. With proper culture and encouragement we might have ſilk, wine, and oil from thoſe colonies: of the firſt we have ſeen ſamples equal to what is brought to us from Italy. Wheat grows extremely well in the back parts, and yields a prodigious increaſe.

From what we have obſerved of theſe valuable provinces, their productions appear to be, vines, wheat, rice, Indian corn, barley, oats, peaſe, beans, hemp, flax, cotton, tobacco, indigo, olives, orange, citron, cypreſs, ſaſſafras, oak, walnut, caſſia, and pine trees; white mulberry-trees for feeding ſilk-worms; ſarſaparilla, and pines which yield turpentine, roſin, tar, and pitch. There is a kind of tree from which runs an oil of extraordinary virtue for curing wounds; and another, which yields a balm, thought to be little inferior to that of Mecca. There are other trees beſide theſe, that yield gums. The Carolinas produce prodigious quantities of honey, of which they make excellent ſpirits, and mead as good as Malaga ſack. Of all theſe, the three great ſtaple commodities at preſent are, the indigo, rice, and the produce of the pine. Nothing ſurpriſes an European more at firſt ſight, than the ſize of the trees here, as well as in Virginia and other American countries. Their trunks are often from 50 to 70 feet high, without a branch or limb; and frequently above 36 feet in circumference. Of theſe trunks, when hollowed, the people of Charles-Town as well as the Indians make canoes, which ſerve to tranſport proviſions and other goods from place to place, and ſome of them are ſo large, that they will carry 30 or 40 barrels of pitch, though formed of one entire piece of timber. Of theſe are likewiſe made curious pleaſure-boats.

Animals.] The original animals of this country do not differ much from thoſe of Virginia; but in Carolina they have a ſtill greater variety of beautiful fowls. All the animals of Europe are here in plenty; black cattle are multiplied prodigiouſly: to have 2 or 300 cows is very common, but ſome have 1000 or upwards. Theſe ramble all day at pleaſure in the foreſts; but their calves being ſeparated and kept in fenced paſtures, the cows return every evening to them. The hogs range in the ſame manner, and return like the cows; theſe

are very numerous, and many run quite wild, as well as horned cattle and horſes, in the woods. It is ſurpriſing that the cattle ſhould have encreaſed ſo quickly ſince their being firſt imported from Europe, while there are ſuch numbers of wolves, tygers, and panthers, conſtantly ranging the woods and foreſts. We have already obſerved that theſe animals are leſs ravenous than the beaſts of Africa and Aſia; they very ſeldom attempt to kill either calves or foals in America, and when attacked, their dams make a vigorous defence.

HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, POPULATION, CHIEF TOWNS, AND COMMERCE.

The firſt Engliſh expeditions into Carolina were unfortunate. Nothing ſucceſsful was done in this way till the year 1663, in the reign of Charles II. At that time ſeveral Engliſh noblemen, and others of great diſtinction, obtained a charter from the crown, inveſting them with the property and juriſdiction of this country. They parcelled out the lands to ſuch as were willing to go over into the new ſettlement, and to ſubmit to a ſyſtem of laws, which they employed the famous Locke to compoſe for them.

They began their firſt ſettlement at a point of land towards the ſouthward of their diſtrict, between two navigable rivers. Here they laid the foundation of a city, called Charles-Town, which was deſigned to be what it now is, the capital of the province. In time, however, as no reſtriction had been laid upon the religious principles of thoſe who ſettled in Carolina, the diſputes between the church of England-men and diſſenters cauſed a total confuſion in the colony. This was rendered ſtill more intolerable by the incurſions of the Indians, whom they had irritated by their inſolence and injuſtice. In order to prevent the fatal conſequences of theſe inteſtine diviſions and foreign wars, an act of parliament was paſſed, which put this colony under the immediate protection of the crown. The lords proprietors accepted a recompence of about 24,000 l. for both the property and juriſdiction; and the conſtitution of this colony in thoſe reſpects in which it differed from the royal colonies was altered. Earl Granville, however, thought fit to retain his ſeventh ſhare, which is ſtill in the poſſeſſion of his family. For the more convenient adminiſtration of affairs too, Carolina was divided into two diſtricts, and two ſeparate governments. This happened in 1728, and from that time, peace being reſtored in the internal government, as well as with the Cherokees and other Indian tribes, theſe provinces began to breathe; and their trade has advanced of late with wonderful rapidity.

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The ſettlement of Georgia was projected in 1732, when ſeveral public-ſpirited noblemen and others, from compaſſion to the poor of theſe kingdoms, ſubſcribed a conſiderable ſum, which, with 10,000 l. from the government, was given to provide in neceſſaries ſuch poor perſons as were willing to tranſport themſelves into this province, and to ſubmit to the regulations impoſed on them. In proceſs of time, new ſums were raiſed, and new inhabitants ſent over. Before the year 1752, upwards of 1000 perſons were ſettled in this province. It was not, however, to be expected that the inhabitants of Georgia, removed as they were at a great diſtance from their benefactors, and from the check and controul of thoſe who had a natural influence over them, would ſubmit to the magiſtrates appointed to govern them. Many of the regulations too, by which they were bound, were very improper in themſelves, and deprived the Georgians of privileges which their neighbours enjoyed, and which, as they increaſed in numbers and opulence, they thought it hard that they ſhould be deprived of. From theſe corrupt ſources aroſe all the bad humours which tore to pieces this conſtitution of government. Diſſentions of all kinds ſprung up, and the colony was on the brink of deſtruction, when, in 1752, the government took it under their immediate care, removed their particular grievances, and placed Georgia on the ſame footing with the Carolinas.

The method of ſettling in Carolina, and indeed in other provinces of Britiſh America, was to pitch upon a void ſpace of ground, and either to purchaſe it at the rate of 20 l. for 1000 acres, and one ſhilling quit-rent for every 100 acres; or otherwiſe, to pay a penny an acre quit-rent yearly to the proprietors, without purchaſe-money: the former method is the moſt common, and the tenor a freehold. The people of Carolina live in the ſame eaſy, plentiful, and luxurious manner with the Virginians already deſcribed. Poverty is here almoſt an entire ſtranger; and the planters are the moſt hoſpitable people that are to be met with to all ſtrangers, and eſpecially to ſuch as by accident or misfortunes are rendered incapable to provide for themſelves.

The only town in either of the Carolinas worthy of notice is Charles-Town, the metropolis, in South-Carolina, which for ſize, beauty, and trade, may be conſidered as one of the firſt in Britiſh America. I have already mentioned its admirable ſituation at the confluence of two navigable rivers, one of which is navigable for ſhips 20 miles above the town, and for boats and large canoes near 40. The harbour is good in every reſpect, but that of a bar, which hinders veſſels of more

than 200 tons burden from entering. The town is regularly and pretty ſtrongly fortified by nature and art; the ſtreets are well cut; the houſes are large and well built, ſome of them are of brick, and others of wood, but all of them handſome and elegant, and rent is extremely high. The ſtreets are wide and ſtraight, interſecting each other at right angles; thoſe running eaſt and weſt extend about a mile from one river to the other. It contains about 1000 houſes, and is the ſeat of the governor, and the place of meeting of the aſſembly. Its neighbourhood is beautiful beyond deſcription. Several handſome equipages are kept here. The planters and merchants are rich and well bred; the people are ſhewey and expenſive in their dreſs and way of living; ſo that every thing conſpires to make this by much the livelieſt, the loveliеſt, and politeſt place, as it is one of the richeſt too, in all America. It ought alſo to be obſerved, for the honour of the people of Carolina, that, when in common with the other colonies, they reſolved againſt the uſe of certain luxuries, and even neceſſaries of life; thoſe articles which improve the mind, enlarge the underſtanding, and correct the taſte, were excepted: the importation of books was permitted as formerly.

As South-Carolina has met with infinitely more attention than the other provinces, the commerce of this country alone employs 140 ſhips, while that of the other two does not employ 60. Its exports to Great-Britain of native commodities, on an average of three years, amount to more than 395,000 l. annual value; and its imports at 365,000 l. The exports of North-Carolina are computed at more than 68,000 l. and its imports at about 18,000 l. The trade of Georgia is likewiſe in its infancy; the exports amount to a little more than 74,000 l. and the imports at 49,000 l.

The trade between Carolina and the Weſt-Indies is the ſame in all reſpects with that of the reſt of the colonies, and is very large; their trade with the Indians is likewiſe in a very flouriſhing condition; and they carry Engliſh goods on pack-horſes 5 or 600 miles into the country weſt of Charles-Town.

The mouths of the rivers in North-Carolina form but ordinary harbours, and do not admit, except one at Cape Fear, veſſels of above 70 or 80 tuns. This lays a weight upon their trade, by the expence of lighterage. Edenton was formerly the capital of North-Carolina, which is no more than a trifling village; but they are now projecting a town farther ſouth, which is more eccentrical.

Georgia has two towns already known in trade. Savannah, the capital, is commodiouſly ſituated for an inland and foreign

trade,

trade, about ten miles from the ſea, upon a noble river of the ſame name, which is navigable for 200 miles farther for large boats, to the ſecond town, called Auguſta, which ſtands in a country of the greateſt fertility, and carries on a conſiderable trade with the Indians. From the town of Savannah you ſee the whole courſe of the river towards the ſea; and on the other hand, you ſee the river for about 60 miles up into the country. Here the Rev. Mr. George Whitefield (who uſed to croſs the Atlantic every other year) founded an orphan-houſe, which is now converted into a college for the education of young men deſigned chiefly for the miniſtry; and through his zeal and pious care, this favourite ſeminary is at preſent in a thriving condition.

EAST and WEST FLORIDA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 500	between	80 and 91 weſt longitude.
Breadth 440		25 and 32 north latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] THIS country, which was ceded by Spain to Great-Britain by the late treaty of peace, and includes a part of Louiſiana, is now divided into the governments of Eaſt and Weſt Florida. See the Royal Proclamation.

RIVERS.] Theſe are the Miſſiſippi, which forms the weſtern boundary of Florida, and is one of the fineſt in the world, as well as the largeſt; for including its turnings and windings, it is ſuppoſed to run a courſe of 4500 miles; but its mouths are in a manner choaked up with ſands and ſhoals, which deny acceſs to veſſels of any conſiderable burden; there being, according to Mitchel's map, only twelve feet water over the bar (captain Pittman ſays ſeventeen) at the principal entrance. Within the bar there is 100 fathom water, and the channel is every where deep, and the current gentle, except at a certain ſeaſon, when, like the Nile, it overflows and becomes extremely rapid. It is, except at the entrance already mentioned, every where free from ſhoals and cataracts, and navigable for craft of one kind or other almoſt to its ſource. The Mobille, the Apalachicola, and St. John's rivers, are alſo large and noble ſtreams.

BAYS AND CAPES.] The principal bays are, St. Bernard's, Aſcenſion, Mobille, Penſacola, Dauphin, Joſeph, Apalaxy, Spiritu Sancto, and Charles Bay.

The chief capes are, Cape Blanco, Samblas, Anclote, St. Auguſtine, and Cape Florida, at the extremity of the peninſula, which terminates the Britiſh America ſouthward.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] It is very difficult to reconcile the various accounts that have been given of theſe particulars in this country. The people who have obtained grants of lands in Florida, and are deſirous to ſettle or ſell them, repreſent the whole country as a Canaan, and St. Auguſtine, in Eaſt-Florida, as the Montpelier of America: they tell us, that the climate of Florida is an exceeding agreeable medium betwixt the ſcorching heat of the tropics, and the pinching cold of the northern latitudes; that there is indeed a change of the ſeaſons, but it is a moderate one: in November and December, many trees loſe their leaves, vegetation goes on ſlowly, and the winter is perceived, but ſo mild, that ſnow is never ſeen there; and the tendereſt plants of the Weſt-Indies, ſuch as the plantain, the allegator-pear-tree, the banana, the pine-apple, the ſugar-cane, &c. remain unhurt during the winter, in the gardens of St. Auguſtine: that the fogs and dark gloomy weather, ſo common in England, are unknown in this country. And though at the equinoxes, eſpecially the autumnal, the rains fall very heavy every day for ſome weeks together, yet, when the ſhower is over, the ſky immediately clears up, and all is calm and ſerene.

Others have repreſented this very coaſt as the grave and burying-place of all ſtrangers who are ſo unhappy as to go there, affirming as a truth, the well known ſtory propagated ſoon after the laſt peace, That upon the landing of our troops to take poſſeſſion of Florida, the Spaniards aſked them "What crimes have you been guilty of at home?" We ſhall take the liberty to obſerve on this head, that though the air here is very warm, the heats are much allayed by cool breezes from the ſeas which environ and waſh a conſiderable part of this country. The inland countries towards the north feel a little of the roughneſs of the north-weſt wind, which, more or leſs, diffuſes its chilling breath over the whole continent of North-America, carrying froſt and ſnow many degrees more to the ſouthward in theſe regions, than the north-eaſt wind does in Europe.

That the air of Florida is pure and wholeſome, appears from the ſize, vigour, and longevity of the Floridan Indians, who in theſe reſpects far exceed their more ſouthern neighbours, the Mexicans. That when the Spaniards quitted St. Auguſtine, many of them were of great age, ſome above 90. Since it came into the hands of Great-Britain, many gentlemen in a deep conſumption have aſcribed the recovery of their

health to that climate; and it is a certain fact, that the ninth regiment, ſtationed on different parts of the coaſt, did not loſe a ſingle man by natural death in the ſpace of twenty months.

SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY. Many of the diſadvantages indiſcriminately imputed to the ſoil of the whole country, ſhould be confined to Eaſt-Florida, which indeed, near the ſea, and 40 miles back, is flat and ſandy. But even the country round St. Auguſtine, in all appearance the worſt in the province, is far from being unfruitful; it produces two crops of Indian corn a year; the garden vegetables are in great perfection; the orange and lemon trees grow here, without cultivation, to a larger ſize, and produce better fruit, than in Spain and Portugal. The inland country towards the hills is extremely rich and fertile, producing ſpontaneouſly the fruits, vegetables, and gums, that are common to Georgia and the Carolinas, and is likewiſe favourable to the rearing of European productions. There is not, on the whole continent of America, any place better qualified by nature to afford not only all the neceſſaries of life, but alſo all the pleaſures of habitation, than that part of this country which lies upon the banks of the Miſſiſippi.

From the climate of Florida, and ſome ſpecimens ſent home, there is reaſon to expect, that cotton, ſugar, wine, and ſilk, will grow here as well as in Perſia, India, and China, which are in the ſame latitudes. This country alſo produces rice, indigo, ambergris, cochineal, amethyſts, turquoiſes, lapis lazuli, and other precious ſtones; copper, quickſilver, pit-coal, and iron ore: pearls are found in great abundance on the coaſt of Florida: mahogany grows on the ſouthern parts of the peninſula, but inferior in ſize and quality to that of Jamaica. The animal creation are here ſo numerous, that you may purchaſe a good ſaddle-horſe in exchange for goods of five ſhillings value prime coſt; and there are inſtances of horſes being exchanged for a hatchet per head.

POPULATION, COMMERCE, AND CHIEF TOWNS. Notwithſtanding the luxuriancy of the ſoil, the ſalubrity of the air, the cheapneſs and plenty of proviſions, the encouragement of the Britiſh government, (See the proclamation) and the wiſe meaſures taken by the governors ſent thither to ſettle theſe provinces, the number of Engliſh inhabitants are yet very inconſiderable, and, in all appearance, the increaſe of population will be here extremely ſlow, and that proceeding from unavoidable cauſes.

When we conſider the long and deſtructive wars which the mother country has ſupported by ſea and land againſt the houſe

of

of Bourbon; the emigrations to our other ſettlements in North America, the Eaſt and Weſt Indies; the numerous manufactures carrying on at home; and the prodigious ſhipping employed in tranſporting theſe to every corner of the globe; it would appear, that, inſtead of peopling our colonies, we wanted a ſupply of hands at home; and, of courſe, the acquiſition of a new territory, without people to plant it, muſt be an incumbrance to the mother country, eſpecially as the civil and military eſtabliſhments of both Floridas are ſaid to coſt the government near 100,000 l. per annum.

If, for this purpoſe, we look to the northern colonies of America, we ſhall find them leſs able, and the people leſs diſpoſed to relinquiſh countries which preſent them with all the comforts of life in vaſt abundance, and where they live in affluence, eaſe, and ſafety. Is any planter able to improve more ground; or, does the increaſe of his family and ſtock require 1000 acres more to his eſtate? the vaſt regions behind (for, comparatively ſpeaking, little more than the ſea coaſt of North America is yet cleared and inhabited by Europeans) preſent themſelves to his view. For a penny an acre in ſome places, and a halfpenny in others, annually, he may traverſe the foreſt, chooſe out the moſt enchanting ſituation, upon the banks of a fine navigable river, and fix upon as much ground as he can poſſibly cultivate. Is he ambitious to become a freeholder? for the value of a ſuit of clothes he may purchaſe 500 acres; the fertility of which, in a few years, puts him on a reſpectable footing with his neighbours, and ſometimes gives him a ſeat in the council of the people.

It has been therefore hinted, that the chief advantage to be derived to Great-Britain from the poſſeſſion of Florida, ariſes from its ſituation; ſerving as a frontier againſt the incurſions of our enemies: that its ports, ſituated in the Gulph of Mexico (See the map of North America) will always be a check upon Spain, as it commands the paſſage between her ſettlements; for the galeons, and other veſſels, in their paſſage from Vera Cruz in Mexico to the Havannah, are obliged, by reaſon of their north-eaſt trade winds, to ſtretch away to the northward, and generally keep as near the coaſt of Florida as poſſible. And that in time of war with that nation, or her ally the French, the harbours of Florida are moſt commodiouſly ſituated for a place of rendezvous and refreſhment to the royal navy ſent to protect our own Weſt-India iſlands, or attack thoſe belonging to France and Spain.

But theſe advantages, great as they are, ſeem totally eclipſed, when we conſider the ſituation of Florida in a commercial view; for though hitherto, while in a wild, uncultivated ſtate, its

its productions have entered very little into the general ſcale of Britiſh commerce, we have ſtill a proſpect of eſtabliſhing and carrying on a trade with the Spaniſh colonies; it being certain that a regular intercourſe might be eſtabliſhed with them, which would open a vent for the commodities of Great Britain and yield returns for them in gold and ſilver, the moſt profitable of all kinds of commerce.

The chief town in Weſt Florida is Penſacola, which is ſeated within the bay of the ſame name, on a ſandy ſhore that can only be approached by ſmall veſſels. The road is, however, one of the beſt in all the gulph of Mexico, in which veſſels may lie in ſafety againſt every kind of wind, being ſurrounded by land on every ſide. This place ſends, in ſkins, logwood, dying ſtuffs, and ſilver in dollars, to the annual value of 63,000 l. and receives of our manufactures, at an average of three years, to the value of 97,000 l.

St. Auguſtine, the capital of Eaſt Florida, runs along the ſhore, and is of an oblong form, divided by four regular ſtreets, croſſing each other at right angles. The town is fortified with baſtions, and encloſed with a ditch. It is likewiſe defended by a caſtle, which is called Fort St. John; and the whole is well furniſhed with cannon. At the entrance into the harbour are the north and ſouth breakers, which form two channels, whoſe bars, at low tides, have eight feet water. Our exports to St. Auguſtine amount to little more than 7000 l. per annum; its exports have hitherto been nothing more than the produce of ſome little trade carried on with the Indians.

The low ſtate of commerce in Florida ariſes from this, that no European nation had, before the concluſion of the late war, made it an object of attention; but ſince that period, its importance becomes more known. Its climate and ſoil are extremely favourable for the raiſing of ſilk. Some attempts indeed have been made in Carolina and Georgia, where in one place the raiſing of ſilk is become a kind of ſtaple commodity; but there the worms are often injured by the cold mornings, at other times they are benumbed and made ſickly for want of warmth, and ſometimes actually deſtroyed; an inconvenience which is alſo frequently experienced in Italy: but the more ſouthern climate of Florida has placed this tender inſect beyond the reach of ſuch diſaſters; and experience will ſhew, that the air and climate of this country is as favourable to the ſilk-worm as it is to the mulberry-tree on which it feeds, and which grows here in its utmoſt luxuriancy. The numerous vines too, which grow up ſpontaneouſly in the foreſts of this country, ſeem to invite us to cultivate the grape, and to prog-

prognoſticate, that the produce of Florida may, with proper cultivation, gladden the heart of Britons in future ages.

We have already mentioned the difficulty of peopling this country from Great Britain or her colonies, but, with ſuitable encouragement from government, foreigners might be invited thither, ſuch as Germans from the Rhine, Moſelle, and other parts where they cultivate vineyards; proteſtants from the ſouth of France, uſed to the culture of ſilk, olives, &c. Greeks from the Levant, who are groaning under the Turkiſh yoke, and are an induſtrious people, well ſkilled in the cultivation of cotton, vines, raiſins, currants, olives, almonds, and ſilk-worms; for which the climate of Florida is ſo well adapted. And herein may be perceived the value of this country to Great Britain; for though from the variety of climates in the extenſive empire of Britiſh America, reaching in a direct line from the frozen wilds of Labrador, where the hardy inhabitants, cloathed in furs, wander amidſt eternal ſnow, to the ſultry regions within the tropics, where, ſeated in the heart of a luxuriant ſoil, the wealthy planter ſhelters himſelf from the ſcorching ſun by the ſpreading umbrella; we command a much greater number of articles of commerce and the conveniencies of life than any nation on earth, yet it is to Florida that we muſt look for ſilk, wine, and ſome other articles, and theſe too of the beſt ſorts, which hitherto we purchaſed, and do ſtill purchaſe in immenſe quantities, from different powers of Europe and Aſia; nor can a rich and trading nation poſſibly be without them, as we daily experience from the quantity of treaſure ſent annually to China for ſilk.

To what has been obſerved reſpecting the climate, ſoil, and produce of Florida, we ſhall take the liberty to give the following extracts from ſome letters of a gentleman who went to St. Auguſtine about the year 1764, in a conſumptive ſtate of health.

May 15, 1767. "I am much obliged to you for your enquiry after my health; I have agreed with Florida extremely well: indeed this country is in general very healthy, and till laſt autumn we had no ſick here, and then our ſickneſs was not mortal, although very much ſo in every other part of America. I believe my friends do not know that we are ſo near Charles-Town, and that we have not only a water but a land communication with that place. Sending letters by the packet is very tedious, as they muſt go round by the Weſt-Indies."

April 16, 1768. "You cannot conceive how agreeable it is for people in ſuch an exotic country as this, to receive a European letter. This country, in all probability, will make a figure

a figure ſoon, as a number of gentlemen of conſiderable property, both from England and Scotland, have obtained orders from his majeſty for grants of land in this province, and are now buſy in forming plantations. Between 6 and 700 working ſlaves are already in the colony of Eaſt Florida."

And in a third letter, received in 1770, there is the following intelligence. "This goes by a veſſel of Mr. ———, which arrived here ſome time ago with a cargo of ſlaves from the coaſt of Africa; ſhe ſails from this to-morrow directly for your port of London, and carries our firſt produce to that market, viz. between 8 and 9000 weight of indigo, ſome cotton, rice, and deer-ſkins; likewiſe ſome ſhip-timber, by way of trial. This province bids fair to exceed all the other American provinces in the article of indigo, as the plant ſtands the winter, that is ſhoots up from the old roots in the ſpring; by which means we have a full cutting more than they have to the northward. Our quantity this year is ſmall, but the quality remarkably good. Some of our planters have vanity enough to think they are entitled to the medal given by the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, &c. and have applied for it accordingly."

WEST INDIES.

WE have already obſerved, that between the two continents of America, lie an innumerable multitude of iſlands, which we call the Weſt Indies, and which, ſuch as are worth cultivation, now belong to five European powers, as Great Britain, Spain, France, Holland, and Denmark. As the climate and ſeaſons of theſe iſlands differ widely from what we can form any idea of, from what we perceive at home, we ſhall, to avoid repetitions, ſpeak of them in general, as well as ſome other particulars that are peculiar to the Weſt-Indies.

The climate in all our Weſt India iſlands, is nearly the ſame, allowing for thoſe accidental differences which the ſeveral ſituations and qualities of the lands themſelves produce. As they lie within the tropics, and that the ſun goes quite over their heads, paſſing beyond them to the north, and never returning further from any of them than about 30 degrees to the ſouth, they are continually ſubjected to the extreme of an heat, which would be intolerable, if the trade wind, riſing gradually as the ſun gathers ſtrength, did not blow in upon them from the ſea, and refreſh the air in ſuch a manner, as to enable them to attend their concerns even under the meridian ſun.

ſun. On the other hand, as the night advances, a breeze begins to be perceived, which blows ſmartly from the land, as it were from its center, towards the ſea, to all points of the compaſs at once.

By the ſame remarkable Providence in the diſpoſing of things, it is, that when the ſun has made a great progreſs towards the tropic of Cancer, and becomes in a manner vertical, he draws after him ſuch a vaſt body of clouds, as ſhield them from his direct beams; and diſſolving into rain, cool the air, and refreſh the country, thirſty with the long drought, which commonly reigns from the beginning of January to the latter end of May.

The rains in the Weſt Indies (and we may add in the Eaſt Indies) are by no means ſo moderate as with us. Our heavieſt rains are but dews comparatively. They are rather floods of water, poured from the clouds with a prodigious impetuoſity; the rivers riſe in a moment; new rivers and lakes are formed, and in a ſhort time all the low country is under water *. Hence it is, that the rivers which have their ſource within the tropics, ſwell and overflow their banks at a certain ſeaſon; and ſo miſtaken were the antients in their idea of the torrid zone, which they imagined to be dried and ſcorched up, with a continual and fervent heat, and to be for that reaſon uninhabitable: when in reality, ſome of the largeſt rivers of the world have their courſe within its limits, and the moiſture is one of the greateſt inconveniences of the climate in ſeveral places.

The rains make the only diſtinction of ſeaſons in the Weſt Indies; the trees are green the whole year round; they have no cold, no froſts, no ſnows, and but rarely ſome hail; the ſtorms of hail are, however, very violent when they happen, and the hailſtones very great and heavy. Whether it be owing to this moiſture, which alone does not ſeem to be a ſufficient cauſe, or to a greater quantity of a ſulphureous acid, which predominates in the air of this country, metals of all kinds, that are ſubject to the action of ſuch cauſes, ruſt and canker in a very ſhort time: and this cauſe, perhaps as much as the heat itſelf, contributes to make the climate of the Weſt Indies unfriendly and unpleaſant to an European conſtitution.

It is in the rainy ſeaſon (principally in the month of Auguſt, more rarely in July and September) that they are aſſaulted by hurricanes; the moſt terrible calamity to which they are ſubject (as well as the people in the Eaſt Indies) from

* See Waſer's Journey acroſs the Iſthmus of Darien, in Vol. II. of the Collection of Voyages and Travels, advertiſed at the end of this book.

from the climate; this deſtroys, at a ſtroke, the labours of many years, and proſtrates the moſt exalted hopes of the planter, and often juſt at the moment when he thinks himſelf out of the reach of fortune. It is a ſudden and violent ſtorm of wind, rain, thunder, and lightning, attended with a furious ſwelling of the ſeas, and ſometimes with an earthquake; in ſhort, with every circumſtance, which the elements can aſſemble, that is terrible and deſtructive. Firſt, they ſee as the prelude to the enſuing havock, whole fields of ſugar canes whirled into the air, and ſcattered over the face of the country. The ſtrongeſt trees of the foreſt are torn up by the roots, and driven about like ſtubble; their windmills are ſwept away in a moment; their utenſils, the fixtures, the ponderous copper boilers, and ſtills of ſeveral hundred weight, are wrenched from the ground, and battered to pieces; their houſes are no protection, the roofs are torn off at one blaſt; whilſt the rain, which in an hour riſes five feet, ruſhes in upon them with an irreſiſtible violence.

The hurricane comes on either in the quarters, or at the full change of the moon. If it comes at the full moon, obſerve theſe ſigns. That day you will ſee the ſky very turbulent; you will obſerve the ſun more red than at other times; you will perceive a dead calm, and the hills clear of all thoſe clouds and miſts which uſually hover about them. In the clefts of the earth, and in the wells, you hear a hollow rumbling ſound, like the ruſhing of a great wind. At night the ſtars ſeem much larger than uſual, and ſurrounded with a ſort of burs; the north-weſt ſky has a black and menacing look; the ſea emits a ſtrong ſmell, and riſes into vaſt waves, often without any wind; the wind itſelf now forſakes its uſual ſteady eaſterly ſtream, and ſhifts about to the weſt; from whence it ſometimes blows with intermiſſions violently and irregularly for about two hours at a time. The moon herſelf is ſurrounded with a great bur, and ſometimes the ſun has the ſame appearance. Theſe are ſigns which the Indians of theſe iſlands taught our planters, by which they can prognoſticate the approach of an hurricane.

The grand ſtaple commodity of the Weſt Indies is ſugar; this commodity was not at all known to the Greeks and Romans, though it was made in China, in very early times, from whence we had the firſt knowledge of it; but the Portugueſe were the firſt who cultivated it in America, and brought it into requeſt, as one of the materials of a very univerſal luxury in Europe. It is not ſettled whether the cane, from which this ſubſtance is extracted, be a native of America, or brought thither to their colony of Brazil, by the Portugueſe,

from India and the coaſt of Africa (ſee VOL. II. page 322) but, however the matter may be, in the beginning they made the moſt, as they ſtill do the beſt ſugars which come to market in this part of the world. The juice within the ſugar-cane is the moſt lively, elegant, and leaſt cloying ſweet in nature; and which, ſucked raw, has proved extremely nutritive and wholeſome. From the molaſſes rum is diſtilled, and from the ſcummings of the ſugar, a meaner ſpirit is procured. Rum finds its market in North America (where it is conſumed by the Engliſh inhabitants, or employed in the Indian trade, or diſtributed from thence to the fiſhery of Newfoundland, and the African commerce; beſides what comes to Great-Britain and Ireland. However, a very great quantity of molaſſes is taken off raw, and carried to New-England, to be diſtilled there. The tops of the canes, and the leaves which grow upon the joints, make very good provender for their cattle, and the refuſe of the cane, after grinding, ſerves for fire; ſo that no part of this excellent plant is without its uſe.

They compute that, when things are well managed, the rum and molaſſes pay the charges of the plantation, and the ſugars are clear gain. However, by the particulars we have ſeen, and by others which we may eaſily imagine, the expences of a plantation in the Weſt-Indies are very great, and the profits at the firſt view precarious; for the chargeable articles of the wind-mill, the boiling, cooling, and diſtilling houſes, and the buying and ſubſiſting a ſuitable number of ſlaves and cattle, will not ſuffer any man to begin a ſugar plantation of any conſequence, not to mention the purchaſe of the land, which is very high, under a capital of at leaſt 5000 l. Neither is the life of a planter, if he means to acquire a fortune, a life of idleneſs and luxury; at all times he muſt keep a watchful eye upon his overſeers, and even overſee himſelf occaſionally. But at the boiling ſeaſon, if he is properly attentive to his affairs, no way of life can be more laborious, and more dangerous to the health; from a conſtant attendance day and night, in the extreme united heats of the climate, and ſo many fierce furnaces; add to this, the loſſes by hurricanes, earthquakes, and bad ſeaſons; and then conſider when the ſugars are in the caſk, that he quits the hazard of a planter, to engage in the hazards of a merchant, and ſhips his produce at his own riſk. Theſe conſiderations might make one believe, that it could never anſwer to engage in this buſineſs; but, notwithſtanding all this, there are no parts of the world, in which great eſtates are made in ſo ſhort a time, from the produce of the earth, as in the Weſt-Indies. The produce of a few good ſeaſons, generally provide againſt the ill effects of the

the worſt, as the planter is ſure of a ſpeedy and profitable market for his produce, which has a readier ſale than perhaps any other commodity in the world.

Large plantations are generally under the care of a manager, or chief overſeer, who has commonly a ſalary of 150 l. a year, with overſeers under him in proportion to the greatneſs of the plantation, one to about thirty negroes, and at the rate of about 40 l. Such plantations too have a ſurgeon at a fixed ſalary, employed to take care of the negroes which belong to it. But the courſe which is the leaſt troubleſome to the owner of the eſtate is, to let the land, with all the works, and the ſtock of cattle and ſlaves, to a tenant, who gives ſecurity for the payment of the rent, and the keeping up repairs and ſtock. The eſtate is generally eſtimated to ſuch a tenant at half the neat produce of the beſt years; ſuch tenants, if induſtrious and frugal men, ſoon make good eſtates for themſelves.

The negroes in the plantations are ſubſiſted at a very eaſy rate. This is generally by alloting to each family of them a ſmall portion of land, and allowing them two days in the week, Saturday and Sunday, to cultivate it: ſome are ſubſiſted in this manner, but others find their negroes with a certain portion of Guinea or Indian corn, and to ſome a ſalt herring, or a ſmall portion of bacon or ſalt pork a day. All the reſt of the charge conſiſts in a cap, a ſhirt, a pair of breeches, ſtockings and ſhoes; the whole not exceeding 40 s. a year, and the profit of their labour yields 10 or 12 l. The price of men negroes upon their firſt arrival is from 30 to 36 l. women and grown boys about 50 s. leſs; but ſuch negro families as are acquainted with the buſineſs of the iſlands generally bring above 40 l. upon an average one with another, and there are inſtances of a ſingle negro man expert in buſineſs bringing 150 guineas, and the wealth of a planter is generally computed from the number of ſlaves he poſſeſſes.

To particularize the commodities proper for the Weſt-India market, would be to enumerate all the neceſſaries, conveniences, and luxuries of life; for they have nothing of their own but cotton, coffee, tropical fruits, ſpices, and the commodities I have already mentioned.

Traders there make a very large profit upon all they ſell, but from the numerous ſhipping conſtantly arriving from Europe, and a continual ſucceſſion of new adventurers, each of whom carrying out more or leſs as a venture, the Weſt India market is frequently overſtocked; money muſt be raiſed, and goods are ſometimes ſold at prime coſt or under. But thoſe who can afford to ſtore their goods, and wait for a better

market, acquire fortunes equal to any of the planters. All kinds of handicraftſmen, eſpecially carpenters, bricklayers, braziers and coopers, get very great encouragement. But it is the misfortune of the Weſt Indies, that phyſicians and ſurgeons even outdo the planter and merchant, in accumulating riches.

Before the late war, there were allowed to be in our Weſt Indies at leaſt 230,000 negro ſlaves; and, upon the higheſt calculation, the whites there in all did not amount to 90,000 ſouls. This diſproportion between the freemen and negroes, which grows more viſible every day, ſome writers have endeavoured to account for, by alledging, that the enterprizing ſpirit, which the novelty of the object, and various concurrent cauſes, had produced in the laſt century, has decayed very much. That the diſpoſition of the Weſt Indians themſelves, who for cheapneſs chooſe to do every thing by negroes, which can poſſibly be done by them, contributes greatly to the ſmall number of whites of the lower ſtations. Such indeed is the powerful influence of avarice, that though the whites are kept in conſtant terror of inſurrections and plots, many families employ 25 or 30 negroes as menial ſervants, who are infinitely the moſt dangerous of the ſlaves, and in caſe of any inſurrection, they have it more in their power to ſtrike a ſudden and fatal blow.

The firſt obſervation we think is not well founded; that enterprizing ſpirit which firſt led Britons out to diſcovery, and colonization, ſtill animates in a very conſiderable degree, the people of this nation, but the field is now more ample and enlarged; emigrants have greater ſcope whereon to range; the Britiſh empire extends with incredible ſtrides. Beſides the vaſt continent of North America, which takes in ſuch a variety of climates; diſcovers ſuch richneſs of ſoil; where the people live under various modes of religion, laws and government, and all admirably ſuited to Britiſh tempers; the Eaſt Indies, an inexhauſtible mine of riches, begins to draw the attention of mankind from that of the Weſt. Countries, as well as individuals, attain a name and reputation for ſomething extraordinary, and have their day. Thither many of the beſt families of this nation, are ambitious of procuring places for their ſons in the army, or the compting-houſe. Here is an ample field for all adventurous ſpirits, who, diſdaining an idle life at home, and ambitious of becoming uſeful to themſelves, their connections, or the community, boldly venture into the immenſe regions of this eaſtern world. Others, full as remote from an indolent diſpoſition, but with leſs conduct and inferior abilities, ſet out with the moſt ſanguine

ſanguine hopes. Theſe are your fiery, reſtleſs tempers, willing to undertake the ſevereſt labour, provided it promiſes but a ſhort continuance, who love riſk and hazard, whoſe ſchemes are always vaſt, and who put no medium between being great and being undone.

THE iſlands of the Weſt Indies lie in the form of a bow, or ſemicircle, ſtretching almoſt from the coaſt of Florida north, to the river Oronoque, in the main continent of South America. Some call them the Caribbees, from the firſt inhabitants; though this is a term that moſt geographers confine to the Leeward Iſlands. Sailors diſtinguiſh them into Windward and Leeward Iſlands, with regard to the uſual courſes of ſhips, from Old Spain, or the Canaries, to Carthagena, or New Spain and Portobello. The geographical tables and maps, diſtinguiſh them into the great and little Antilles.

JAMAICA.] The firſt that we come to belonging to Great Britain, and alſo the moſt important, after leaving Florida, is Jamaica, which lies between the 75th and 79th degrees of weſt longitude from London, and between 17 and 18 north latitude. From the eaſt and weſt it is in length about 140 miles, and in the middle about 60 in the breadth, growing leſs towards each end, in the form of an egg. It lies near 4500 miles ſouth-weſt of England.

This iſland is interſected with a ridge of ſteep rocks tumbled by the frequent earthquakes in a ſtupendous manner upon one another. Theſe rocks, though containing no ſoil on their ſurface, are covered with a great variety of beautiful trees, flouriſhing in a perpetual ſpring; they are nouriſhed by the rains, which often fall, or the miſts which continually brood on the mountains, and which, their roots penetrating the crannies of the rocks, induſtriouſly ſeek out for their own ſupport. From the rocks iſſue a vaſt number of ſmall rivers of pure wholeſome water which tumble down in cataracts, and together with the ſtupendous height of the mountains, and the bright verdure of the trees through which they flow, form a moſt delightful landſcape. On each ſide of this great chain of mountains, are ridges of lower ones, which diminiſh as they remove from it. On theſe coffee grows in great plenty. The vallies or plains between theſe ridges, are level beyond what is ordinary in moſt other countries, and the ſoil is prodigiouſly fertile.

The longeſt day in ſummer is about thirteen hours, and the ſhorteſt in winter about eleven; but the moſt uſual diviſions of the ſeaſons in the Weſt Indies, are into the dry and wet ſeaſons.

The air of this island is, in most places, excessive hot and unfavourable to European constitutions; but the cool sea breezes, which set in every morning at ten o'clock, render the heat more tolerable: and the air upon the high grounds is temperate, pure, and cooling. It lightens almost every night, but without much thunder, which when it happens is very terrible, and roars with astonishing loudness, and the lightning in these violent storms, frequently does great damage. In February or March, they expect earthquakes, of which we shall speak hereafter. During the months of May and October, the rains are extremely violent, and continue sometimes for a fortnight together. In the plains are found several salt fountains; and in the mountains, not far from Spanish Town, is a hot bath, of great medicinal virtues. It gives relief in the dry belly-ach, which excepting the bilious and yellow fever, is one of the most terrible endemial distempers of Jamaica.

Sugar is the greatest and most valuable production of this island. Cocoas were formerly cultivated in it to great extent. It produces also ginger, and the piemento, or as it is called Jamaica Pepper; the wild cinnamon tree, whose bark is so useful in medicine; the manchineel, whose fruit, though uncommonly delightful to the eye, contains one of the worst poisons in nature; the mohogany, in such use with our cabinet-makers, and of the most valuable quality, but this wood begins to wear out, and of late is very dear. Excellent cedars of a large size and durable; the cabbage-tree, remarkable for the hardness of its wood, which when dry is incorruptible, and hardly yields to any kind of tool; the palma, affording oil, much esteemed by the savages, both in food and medicine; the soap-tree, whose berries answer all purposes of washing; the mangrove and olive bark, useful to tanners; the fustic and redwood to the dyers; and lately the logwood. The indigo plant was formerly much cultivated; and the cotton-tree is still so. No sort of European grain grow here; they have only maize, or Indian corn, Guinea corn, peas of various kinds, but none of them resembling ours, with variety of roots. Fruit, as has been already observed, grow in great plenty; citrons, seville and china oranges, common and sweet lemons, limes, shadocks, pomegranates, mamees, sourseps, papas, pine-apples, custard apples, star apples, prickly pears, allicada pears, melons, pompions, guavas, and several kinds of berries, also garden stuffs in great plenty and good. The cattle bred on this island are but few; their beef is tough and lean; the mutton and lamb are tolerable; they have great plenty of hogs, many plantations have hundreds of them, and their flesh is exceeding sweet and delicate. Their horses are

ſmall, mettleſome and hardy; and when well made generally ſell for 30 or 40 l. ſterling. Jamaica likewiſe ſupplies the apothecary with guaiacum, ſarſaparilla, China, caſſia, and tamarinds. Among the animals are the land and ſea turtle, and the alligator. Here are all ſorts of fowl, wild and tame, and in particular more parrots than in any of the other iſlands; beſides parrokets, pelicans, ſnipes, teal, Guinea hens, geeſe, ducks and turkies; the humming-bird, and a great variety of others. The rivers and bays abound with fiſh. The mountains breed numberleſs adders, and other noxious animals, as the fens and marſhes do the guana and gallewaſp; but theſe laſt are not venomous. Among the inſects are the ciror, or chegoe, which eats into the nervous and membraneous parts of the fleſh of the negroes, and the white people are ſometimes plagued with them. Theſe inſects get into any part of the body, but chiefly the legs and feet, where they breed in great numbers, and ſhut themſelves up in a bag. As ſoon as the perſon feels them, which is not perhaps till a week after they have been in the body, they pick them out with a needle, or the point of a penknife, taking care to deſtroy the bag entirely, that none of the breed, which are like nits, may be left behind. They ſometimes get into the toes, and eat the fleſh to the very bone.

This iſland was originally a part of the Spaniſh empire in America. Several deſcents had been made upon it by the Engliſh, prior to 1656; but it was not till this year, that Jamaica was reduced under our dominion. Cromwell had fitted out a ſquadron, under Pen and Venables, to reduce the Spaniſh iſland of Hiſpaniola, but there this ſquadron was unſucceſsful. The commanders, of their own accord, to atone for this misfortune, made a deſcent on Jamaica, and having carried the capital St. Jago, ſoon compelled the whole iſland to ſurrender. Ever ſince it has been ſubject to the Engliſh, and the government of it is one of the richeſt places, next to that of Ireland, in the diſpoſal of the crown, the ſtanding ſalary being 2,500 l. per annum, and the aſſembly commonly voting the governor as much more, which, with the other perquiſites, make it on the whole little inferior to 10,000 l. per annum.

We have already obſerved, that the government of all the American iſlands is the ſame, namely, that kind, which we have formerly deſcribed under the name of a royal government. Their religion too is univerſally of the church of England; tho' they have no biſhop, the biſhop of London's commiſſary being the chief religious magiſtrate in thoſe parts.

About the beginning of this century, it was computed, that the numbers of whites in Jamaica amounted to 60,000, and

that of the negroes to 120,000. It appears at preſent that Jamaica is rather on the decline, as is the number of inhabitants, the whites not exceeding 25,000, and the blacks 90,000. Beſides theſe, a number of fugitive negroes have formed a ſort of colony among the blue mountains, independant of the whites, with whom they make treaties, and are in ſome reſpects uſeful to the inhabitants of the iſland, particularly in ſending back run-a-way ſlaves.

Indigo was once very greatly cultivated in Jamaica, and it enriched the iſland to ſo great a degree, that in the pariſh of Vere, where this drug was chiefly cultivated, they are ſaid to have had no leſs than 300 gentlemen's coaches; a number I do not imagine even the whole iſland exceeds at this day; and there is great reaſon to believe, that there were many more perſons of property in Jamaica formerly than are now, though perhaps they had not thoſe vaſt fortunes, which dazzle us in ſuch a manner at preſent. However, the Jamaicans were undoubtedly very numerous, until reduced by earthquakes, and by terrible epidemical diſeaſes, which, treading on the heels of the former calamities, ſwept away vaſt multitudes. The decreaſe of inhabitants, as well as the decline of their commerce, ariſes from the difficulties to which their trade is expoſed, of which they do not fail to complain to the court of Great Britain: as that they are of late deprived of the moſt beneficial part of their trade, the carrying of negroes and dry goods to the Spaniſh coaſt; the low value of their produce, which they aſcribe to the great improvements the French make in their ſugar colonies, which are enabled to underſel them by the lowneſs of their duties, the trade carried on from Ireland, and the northern colonies, to the French and Dutch iſlands, where they pay no duties, and are ſupplied with goods at an eaſier rate. Some of theſe complaints, which equally affect the other iſlands, have been heard, others ſtill remain unredreſſed. Both the logwood trade, and this contraband have been the ſubjects of much contention, and the cauſe of a war between Great Britain, and the Spaniſh nation. The former we always avowed, and claimed as our right; and was at the laſt peace confirmed to us. The latter we permitted; becauſe we thought, and very juſtly, that if the Spaniards found themſelves aggrieved by any contraband trade, it lay upon them, and not upon us, to put a ſtop to it, by their guarda coſtas, which cruize in theſe ſeas, purpoſely to ſeize and confiſcate ſuch veſſels and cargoes, as are found in this trade. In this manner did the Britiſh court argue, till of late, when the politics of this nation, in compliance with the court of Spain, thought proper to ſend Engliſh cruizers, to the American coaſt,

coaſt, effectually to cruſh that lucrative trade, of which the whole body of Britiſh ſubjects in America have complained, as it put a ſtop to the principal channel which hitherto enabled them to remit ſo largely to Great Britain.

Port Royal was formerly the capital of Jamaica. It ſtood upon the point of a narrow neck of land, which, towards the ſea, formed part of the border of a very fine harbour of its own name. The conveniency of this harbour, which was capable to contain a thouſand ſail of large ſhips, and of ſuch depth as to allow them to load and unload at the greateſt eaſe, weighed ſo much with the inhabitants, that they choſe to build their capital on this ſpot, though the place was a hot dry ſand, and produced none of the neceſſaries of life, not even freſh water. But the advantage of its harbour, and the reſort of pirates, made it a place of great conſideration. Theſe pirates were called Buccaneers, they fought with an inconſiderate bravery, and then ſpent their fortune in this capital with as inconſiderate diſſipation. About the beginning of the year 1692, no place, for its ſize, could be compared to this town for trade, wealth, and an entire corruption of manners. In the month of June, in this year, an earthquake, which ſhook the whole iſland to the foundations, totally overwhelmed this city, as to leave, in one quarter, not even the ſmalleſt veſtige remaining. In two minutes, the earth opened and ſwallowed up nine-tenths of the houſes, and two thouſand people. The water guſhed out from the openings of the earth, and tumbled the people on heaps; but ſome of them had the good fortune to catch hold of beams and rafters of houſes, and were afterwards ſaved by boats. Several ſhips were caſt away in the harbour; and the Swan frigate, which lay in the dock to careen, was carried over the tops of ſinking houſes, and did not overſet, but afforded a retreat to ſome hundreds of people, who ſaved their lives upon her. An officer, who was in the town at this time, ſays, the earth opened and ſhut very quick in ſome places, and he ſaw ſeveral people ſink down to the middle, and others appeared with their heads juſt above ground, and were ſqueezed to death. At Savannah, above a thouſand acres were ſunk, with the houſes and people in them; the place appearing for ſome time like a lake, was afterwards dried up, but no houſes were ſeen. In ſome parts, mountains were ſplit; and at one place a plantation was removed to the diſtance of a mile. They again rebuilt the city, but it was a ſecond time, ten years after, deſtroyed by a great fire. The extraordinary convenience of the harbour, tempted them to build it once more; and once more, in 1722, was it laid in rubbiſh by a hurricane, the moſt terrible on record,

Such

Such repeated calamities ſeemed to mark out this place as a devoted ſpot; the inhabitants therefore reſolved to forſake it for ever, and to reſide at the oppoſite bay, where they built Kingſton, which is lately become the capital of the iſland. It conſiſts of upwards of one thouſand houſes, many of them handſomely built, and in the taſte of theſe iſlands, as well as the neighbouring continent, one ſtory high, with porticos, and every conveniency for a comfortable habitation in that climate. Not far from Kingſton, ſtands St. Jago de la Vega, a Spaniſh town, which, though at preſent inferior to Kingſton, was once the capital of Jamaica, and is ſtill the ſeat of government, and the place where the courts of juſtice are held.

The whole product of the iſland may be reduced to theſe heads. Firſt, ſugars, of which they exported in 1753, twenty thouſand three hundred and fifteen hogſheads, ſome vaſtly great, even to a tun weight, which cannot be worth leſs in England than 424,725l. Moſt of this goes to London, Briſtol, and Glaſgow, and ſome part of it to North America, in return for the beef, pork, cheeſe, corn, peas, ſtaves, planks, pitch, and tar, which they have from thence. Second, rum, of which they export about four thouſand puncheons. The rum of this iſland is generally eſteemed the beſt, and is the moſt uſed in Great Britain. Third, molaſſes, in which they make a great part of their returns for New England, where there are vaſt diſtilleries. All theſe are the produce of the grand ſtaple the ſugar cane. Fourth, cotton, of which they ſend out two thouſand bags. The indigo, formerly much cultivated, is now inconſiderable, but ſome cocoa and coffee are exported, with a conſiderable quantity of pepper, ginger, drugs for dyers and apothecaries, ſweetmeats, mohogany, and manchineel planks. But ſome of the moſt conſiderable articles of their trade are with the Spaniſh continent of New Spain and Terra Firma, for in the former they cut great quantities of logwood, and both in the former and latter they did drive a vaſt and profitable trade in negroes, and all kinds of European goods. And even in time of war with Spain, this trade between Jamaica and the Spaniſh Main goes on, which it will be impoſſible for Spain to ſtop, whilſt it is ſo profitable to the Britiſh merchant, and whilſt the Spaniſh officers, from the higheſt to the loweſt, ſhew ſo great a reſpect to preſents properly made. Upon the whole, many of the people of Jamaica, whilſt they appear to live in ſuch a ſtate of luxury, as in moſt other places leads to beggary, acquire great fortunes in a manner inſtantly. Their equipages, their cloaths, their furniture, their tables, all bear the tokens of the greateſt wealth and profuſion imaginable. This obliges all the treaſure they receive,

receive, to make but a very ſhort ſtay, being hardly more than ſufficient to anſwer the calls of their neceſſity and luxury on Europe and North America.

On Sundays, or court time, gentlemen wear wigs, and appear very gay in coats of ſilk, and veſts trimmed with ſilver. At other times they generally wear only thread ſtockings, linen drawers, a veſt, a Holland cap, and a hat upon it. Men ſervants wear a coarſe linen frock, with buttons at the neck and hands, long trowſers of the ſame, and a check ſhirt. The negroes, except thoſe who attend gentlemen, who have them dreſſed in their own livery, have once a year Oſnaburghs, and a blanket for cloathing, with a cap or handkerchief for the head. The morning habit of the ladies is a looſe night-gown, careleſsly wrapped about them: before dinner they put off their diſhabille, and appear with a good grace in all the advantage of a rich and becoming dreſs.

The common drink of perſons in affluent circumſtances is Madeira wine mixed with water. Ale and claret are extravagantly dear; and London porter ſells for a ſhilling per bottle. But the general drink, eſpecially among thoſe of inferior rank, is rum punch, which they call Kill-Devil, becauſe, being frequently drank to exceſs, it heats the blood, brings on fevers, which in a few hours ſends them to the grave, eſpecially thoſe who are juſt come to the iſland, which is the reaſon that ſo many die here upon their firſt arrival.

Engliſh money is ſeldom ſeen here, the current coin being entirely Spaniſh. There is no place where ſilver is ſo plentiful, or has a quicker circulation. You cannot dine for leſs than a piece of eight, and the common rate of boarding is three pounds per week; though in the markets beef, pork, fowl and fiſh, may be bought as cheap as in London; but mutton ſells at nine-pence per pound.

Learning is here at a very low ebb: there are indeed ſome gentlemen well verſed in literature, and who ſend their children to Great Britain, where they have the advantage of a polite and liberal education; but the bulk of the people take little care to improve their minds, being generally engaged in trade or riotous diſſipation.

The miſery and hardſhips of th negroes is truly moving; and though great care is taken to make them propagate, the ill treatment they receive ſo ſhortens their lives, that inſtead of increaſing by the courſe of nature, many thouſands are annually imported to the Weſt-Indies, to ſupply the place of thoſe who pine and die by the hardſhips they receive. They are indeed ſtubborn and untractable for the moſt part, and they muſt be ruled with a rod of iron, but they ought not to be

be crushed with it, or to be thought a sort of beasts, without souls, as some of their masters or overseers do at present, tho' some of these tyrants are themselves the dregs of this nation, and the refuse of the jails of Europe. Many of the negroes, however, who fall into the hands of gentlemen of humanity, find their situations easy and comfortable; and it has been observed, that in North-America, where in general these poor wretches are better used, there is a less waste of negroes, they live longer, and propagate better. And it seems clear, from the whole course of history, that those nations which have behaved with the greatest humanity to their slaves, were always best served, and ran the least hazard from their rebellions. The slaves, on their first arrival from the coast of Guinea, are exposed naked to sale; they are then generally very simple and innocent creatures, but they soon become roguish enough; and when they come to be whipped, excuse their faults by the example of the whites. They believe every negro returns to his native country after death. This thought is so agreeable, that it cheers the poor creatures, and renders the burden of life easy, which would otherwise to many of them be quite intolerable. They look on death as a blessing, and it is surprizing to see with what courage and intrepidity some of them meet it; they are quite transported to think their slavery is near an end, that they shall revisit their native shores, and see their old friends and acquaintance. When a negro is about to expire, his fellow slaves kiss him, and wish him a good journey, and send their hearty good wishes to their relations in Guinea. They make no lamentations; but with a great deal of joy inter his body, believing he is gone home and happy.

BARBADOES.] This island, the most easterly of all the Caribbees, is situated in 59 deg. W. lon. and 13 deg. N. lat. It is 21 miles in length, and in breadth 14. When the English, some time after the year 1625, first landed here, they found it the most savage and destitute place they had hitherto visited. It had not the least appearance of ever having been peopled even by savages. There was no kind of beasts of pasture or of prey, no fruit, no herb, nor root, fit for supporting the life of man. Yet as the climate was so good, and the soil appeared fertile, some gentlemen of small fortunes in England, resolved to become adventurers thither. The trees were so large, and of a wood so hard and stubborn, that it was with great difficulty they could clear as much ground as was necessary for their subsistence. By unremitting perseverance, however, they brought it to yield them a tolerable support; and

and they found that cotton and indigo agreed well with the ſoil, and that tobacco, which was beginning to come into repute in England, anſwered tolerably. Theſe proſpects, together with the ſtorm between the king and parliament, which was beginning to break out in England, induced many new adventurers to tranſport themſelves into this iſland. And what is extremely remarkable, ſo great was the increaſe of people in Barbadoes, 25 years after its firſt ſettlement, that in 1650, it contained more than 50,000 whites, and a much greater number of negro and Indian ſlaves; the latter they acquired by means not at all to their honour; for they ſeized upon all thoſe unhappy men, without any pretence, in the neighbouring iſlands, and carried them into ſlavery. A practice, which has rendered the Caribbee Indians irreconcilable to us ever ſince. They had begun, a little before this, to cultivate ſugar, which ſoon rendered them extremely wealthy. The number of the ſlaves therefore was ſtill augmented; and in 1676, it is ſuppoſed that their number amounted to 100,000, which, together with 50,000, make 150,000 on this ſmall ſpot; a degree of population unknown in Holland, in China, or any other part of the world moſt renowned for numbers. At this time Barbadoes employed 400 ſail of ſhips, one with another of 150 tuns, in their trade. Their annual exports in ſugar, indigo, ginger, cotton, and citron-water, was above 350,000l. and their circulating caſh at home was 200,000l. Such was the increaſe of population, trade, and wealth, in the courſe of 50 years. But ſince that time, this iſland has been much on the decline, which is to be attributed partly to the growth of the French ſugar colonies, and partly to our own eſtabliſhments in the neighbouring iſles. Their numbers at preſent are ſaid to be 20,000 whites, and 100,000 ſlaves. Their commerce conſiſts in the ſame articles as formerly, though they deal in them to leſs extent. Their capital is Bridgetown, where the governor reſides, whoſe employment is ſaid to be worth 5000l. per annum. They have a college founded and well endowed by colonel Codrington, who was a native of this iſland. Barbadoes, as well as Jamaica, has ſuffered much by hurricanes, fires, and the plague.

ST. CHRISTOPHER's.] This iſland, commonly called by the ſailors, St. Kitt's, is ſituated in 62 deg. W. lon. and 17 deg. N. lat. about 14 leagues from Antigua, and is 20 miles long, and ſeven broad. It has its name from the famous Chriſtopher Columbus, who diſcovered it for the Spaniards. This nation, however, abandoned it as unworthy of their attention; and in 1626, it was ſettled by the French and

Engliſh

Engliſh conjunctly; but entirely ceded to us by the peace of Utrecht. Beſides cotton, ginger, and the tropical fruits, it generally produces near as much ſugar as Barbadoes, and ſometimes quite as much. It is computed that this iſland contains 6000 whites, and 36,000 negroes.

ANTIGUA.] Situated in 61 deg. W. lon. and 17 deg. N. lat. is of a circular form, near 20 miles over every way. This iſland, which was formerly thought uſeleſs, has now got the ſtart of the reſt. It has one of the beſt harbours in the Weſt-Indies, and its capital St. John's, which, before the fire in 1769, was large and wealthy, is the ordinary ſeat of the governor of the Leeward iſlands. Antigua is ſuppoſed to contain about 7000 whites, and 30,000 ſlaves.

NEVIS AND MONTSERRAT.] Two ſmall iſlands, lying between St. Chriſtopher's and Antigua, neither of them exceeding 18 miles in circumference, and are ſaid each to contain 5000 whites and 10,000 ſlaves. The ſoil in theſe four iſlands is pretty much alike, light and ſandy, but notwithſtanding fertile in an high degree; and their principal exports are derived from the ſugar cane.

BARBUDA.] Situated in 18 deg. N. lat. 35 miles north of Antigua, is 20 miles in length, and 12 in breadth. It is fertile, and has a good road for ſhipping, but no direct trade with England. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in huſbandry, and raiſing freſh proviſions for the uſe of the neighbouring iſles. It belongs to the Codrington family, and the inhabitants amount to about 1500.

ANGUILLA.] Situated in 18 deg. N. lat. 60 miles north-weſt of St. Chriſtopher's, is about 30 miles long, and 10 broad. This iſland is perfectly level, and the climate nearly the ſame with that of Jamaica. The inhabitants, who are not numerous, apply themſelves to huſbandry, and feeding of cattle.

DOMINICA.] Situated in 15 deg. N. lat. and in 61 deg. 24 min. W. lon. lies about half way between Guadalupe and Martinico. It is near 28 miles in length, and 13 in breadth. It got its name from being diſcovered by Columbus on a Sunday. The French have always oppoſed our ſettling here, becauſe it muſt cut off their communication, in time of war, between Martinico and Guadalupe. By the laſt treaty of peace, however, it was ceded in expreſs terms to the Engliſh; but we have derived little advantage from this conqueſt, the iſland being at preſent no better than a harbour for the natives of the other Caribbees, who being expelled

their

their own ſettlements, have taken refuge here. The ſoil of this iſland is thin, and better adapted to the rearing of cotton and coffee than ſugar; but the ſides of the hills bear the fineſt trees in the Weſt-Indies, and the iſland is well ſupplied with rivulets of fine water.

ST. VINCENT.] Seated 13 deg. 30 min. north lat. and in 61 deg. weſt lon. 50 miles north-weſt of Barbadoes, 30 miles ſouth of St. Lucia, is about 24 miles in length, and 18 in breadth. It is extremely fruitful, being a black mould upon a ſtrong loam, the moſt proper for the raiſing of ſugar. Indigo thrives here remarkably well, but this article is leſs cultivated than formerly throughout the Weſt-Indies. It is at preſent chiefly inhabited by the Caribbeans, and many fugitives from Barbadoes and the other iſlands, who are now numerous, and have many villages where they are ſaid to live well.

GRANADA AND THE GRENADINES.] Granada is ſituated in 12 deg. north lat. and in 61 deg. 40 min. weſt lon. about 30 leagues ſouth-weſt of Barbadoes, and almoſt the ſame diſtance north of New-Andaluſia, or the Spaniſh Main. This iſland is ſaid to be 30 miles in length, and 15 in breadth. Experience has proved that the ſoil of this iſland is extremely proper for producing ſugar, tobacco, and indigo; and upon the whole it carries with it all the appearance of becoming as flouriſhing a colony as any in the Weſt Indies, of its dimenſions. A lake on the top of a hill in the middle of the iſland ſupplies it plentifully with fine rivers, which adorn and fertilize it. Several bays and harbours lie round the iſland, ſome of which might be fortified to great advantage, which renders it very convenient for ſhipping; and it has the happineſs of not being ſubject to hurricanes. Its chief port, called Lewis, has a ſandy bottom, and is ſo capacious and ſafe, that 1000 veſſels from 3 to 400 tun may ride ſecure from ſtorms; and 100 ſhips of the greateſt burden may be moored in its harbour. This iſland was long the theatre of bloody wars between the native Indians and the French, during which theſe handful of Caribbees defended themſelves with the moſt reſolute bravery. In the laſt war, when Granada was attacked by the Engliſh, the French inhabitants, who were not very numerous, were ſo amazed at the reduction of Guadalupe and Martinico, that they loſt all ſpirit, and ſurrendered without making the leaſt oppoſition; and the full property of this iſland, together with the ſmall iſlands on the north, called the Grenadines, which yield the ſame produce, were confirmed to the crown of Great Britain by the treaty of peace.

TOBAGO.] The moſt ſoutherly of all the Britiſh iſlands or ſettlements in America (except Falkland Iſlands, in the South-Seas) is ſituated 11 deg. odd min. north lat. 120 miles ſouth of Barbadoes, and about the ſame diſtance from the Spaniſh Main. This iſland is about 32 miles in length, and nine in breadth. The climate here is not ſo hot as might be expected ſo near the equator; and it is ſaid that it lies out of the courſe of thoſe hurricanes that have ſometimes proved ſo fatal to the other Weſt-India iſlands. It has a fruitful ſoil, capable of producing ſugar, and indeed every thing elſe that is raiſed in the Weſt Indies, with the addition (if we may believe the Dutch) of the cinnamon, nutmeg, and gum copal, all valuable commodities, and which will undoubtedly render this iſland of vaſt importance and immenſe benefit to Great Britain. It is well watered with numerous ſprings; and its bays and creeks are ſo diſpoſed as to be very commodious for all kind of ſhipping. The value and importance of this iſland appears from the expenſive and formidable armaments ſent thither by European powers in ſupport of their different claims. It ſeems to have been chiefly poſſeſſed by the Dutch, who defended their pretenſions againſt both England and France with the moſt obſtinate perſeverance. By the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, it was declared neutral; but by the treaty of peace in 1763, it was yielded up to Great Britain.

Theſe three laſt mentioned iſlands were ſince the war erected into one government.

NEWFOUNDLAND.] Excluſive of the Weſt-India ſugar iſlands lying between the two continents of America, Great Britain claims ſome others, that are ſeated at the diſtance of ſome thouſand miles from each other, upon the coaſt of this quarter of the globe, of which we ſhall ſpeak according to our method, beginning with the north.

Newfoundland is ſituated to the eaſt of the Gulph of St. Lawrence, between 46 and 52 deg. north lat. and between 53 and 59 deg. weſt lon. ſeparated from Labrador or New-Britain by the Straits of Belleiſle, and from Canada by the Bay of St. Lawrence, being 350 miles long, and 200 broad. The coaſts are extremely ſubject to fogs, attended with almoſt continual ſtorms of ſnow and ſleet, the ſky being uſually overcaſt. From the ſoil of this iſland we are far from reaping any ſudden or great advantage, for the cold is long continued and ſevere; and the ſummer heat, though violent, warms it not enough to produce any thing valuable; for the ſoil, at leaſt in thoſe parts of the iſland with which we are acquainted, is rocky and

barren. However, it is watered by ſeveral good rivers, and hath many large and good harbours. This iſland, whenever the continent ſhall come to fail of timber convenient to navigation (which on the ſea coaſt perhaps is no very remote proſpect) will afford a large ſupply for maſts, yards, and all ſorts of lumber for the Weſt-India trade. But what at preſent it is chiefly valuable for, is the great fiſhery of cod, carried on upon thoſe ſhoals which are called the Banks of Newfoundland. Great-Britain and North-America, at the loweſt computation, annually employ 3000 ſail of ſmall craft in this fiſhery; on board of which, and on ſhore to cure and pack the fiſh, are upwards of 10,000 hands; ſo that this fiſhery is not only a very valuable branch of trade to the merchant, but a ſource of livelihood to ſo many thouſands of poor people, and a moſt excellent nurſery to the royal navy. This fiſhery is computed to encreaſe the national ſtock 300,000 l. a year in gold and ſilver, remitted to us for the cod we ſell in the North, in Spain, Portugal, Italy, and the Levant. The plenty of cod, both on the great bank, and the leſſer ones, which lie to the eaſt and ſouth-eaſt of this iſland, is inconceivable; and not only cod, but ſeveral other ſpecies of fiſh, are caught there in abundance; all of which are nearly in an equal plenty along the ſhores of Newfoundland, New-Scotland, New-England, and the iſle of Cape Breton; and very profitable fiſheries are carried on upon all their coaſts; from which we may obſerve, that where our colonies are thinly peopled, or ſo barren as not to produce any thing from their ſoil, their coaſts make us ample amends, and pour in upon us a wealth of another kind, and no way inferior to that ariſing from the moſt fertile ſoil.

This iſland, after various diſputes about the property, was entirely ceded to England by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713; but the French were left at liberty to dry their nets on the northern ſhores of the iſland; and by the treaty of 1763, they were permitted to fiſh in the Gulph of St. Lawrence, but with this limitation, that they ſhould not approach within three leagues of any of the coaſts belonging to England. The ſmall iſlands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, ſituated to the ſouthward of Newfoundland, were alſo ceded to the French, who ſtipulated to erect no fortifications on theſe iſlands, nor to keep more than 50 ſoldiers to enforce the police. The chief towns in Newfoundland are Placentia, Bonaviſta, and St. John; but there do not above 1000 families remain here in the winter.

CAPE BRETON.] This iſland, ſeated between Newfoundland and Nova-Scotia, is in length about 110 miles. The ſoil is barren, but it has good harbours, particularly that of Louiſburgh, which is near four leagues in circumference,

and has every where ſix or ſeven fathoms water. Since the conqueſt of this iſland by Great Britain in the late war, France has not one ſea port for the relief and ſhelter of her trading ſhips, either to or from the Weſt-Indies, open to them any where in America, to the northward of the river Miſſiſippi; and conſequently their whole trade in the fiſhery muſt for the future be expoſed to the Engliſh privateers from the northern colonies in the time of war; a circumſtance which may have ſome weight with that nation, in rendering them leſs forward to commence hoſtilities with Great-Britain.

ST. JOHN's.] Situated in the gulph of St. Lawrence, is about 60 miles in length, and 30 or 40 broad, has many fine rivers, and though lying near Cape-Breton and New-Scotland, has greatly the advantage of both in pleaſantneſs and fertility of ſoil. Upon the reduction of Cape-Breton, the inhabitants of this iſland, amounting to 4000, ſubmitted quietly to the Britiſh arms; and to the diſgrace of the French governor, there were found in his houſe ſeveral Engliſh ſcalps, which were brought there to market by the ſavages of New-Scotland; this being the place where they were encouraged to carry on that barbarous and inhuman trade. This iſland was ſo well improved by the French, that it was ſtiled the granary of Canada, which it furniſhed with great plenty of corn, as well as beef and pork.

BERMUDAS OR SUMMER ISLANDS.] Theſe received their firſt name from their being diſcovered by John Bermudas, a Spaniard; and were called the Summer Iſlands, from Sir George Sommers, who was ſhipwrecked on their rocks in 1609, in his paſſage to Virginia. They are ſituated, at a vaſt diſtance from any continent, in 32 deg. north lat. and in 65 deg. weſt lon. Their diſtance from the Land's end is computed near 1500 leagues, from the Madeiras about 1200, and from Carolina 300. The Bermudas are but ſmall, not containing in all above 20,000 acres; and are very difficult of acceſs, being, as Waller the poet, who reſided ſome time there, expreſſes it, walled with rocks. The air of theſe iſlands, which Waller celebrates in one of his poems, has been always eſteemed extremely healthful; and the beauty and richneſs of the vegetable productions is perfectly delightful. Though the ſoil of theſe iſlands is admirably adapted to the cultivation of the vines, the chief and only buſineſs of the inhabitants, who conſiſt of about 10,000, is the building and navigating of light ſloops and brigantines, which they employ chiefly in the trade between North America and the Weſt Indies. Theſe veſſels are as remarkable for their ſwiftneſs, as the cedar of which they are built is for its hard and durable quality.

The town of St. George, which is the capital, is ſeated at the bottom of a haven in the iſland of the ſame name, and is defended with ſeven or eight forts and ſeventy pieces of cannon. It contains above 1000 houſes, a handſome church, and other elegant public buildings.

LUCAY's, OR BAHAMA ISLANDS.] The Bahamas are ſituated to the ſouth of Carolina, between 22 and 27 deg. north lat. and 73 and 81 deg. weſt lon. They extend along the coaſt of Florida quite down to the Iſle of Cuba; and are ſaid to be 500 in number, ſome of them only mere rocks; but 12 of them are large, fertile, and in nothing different from the ſoil of Carolina: all are, however, abſolutely uninhabited, except Providence, which is 200 miles eaſt of the Floridas, though ſome others are larger and more fertile, on which the Engliſh have plantations. Between them and the continent of Florida is the Gulph of Bahama, or Florida, through which the Spaniſh galeons ſail in their paſſage to Europe. Theſe iſlands were the firſt fruits of Columbus's diſcoveries; but they were not known to the Engliſh till 1667, when captain Seyle, being driven among them in his paſſage to Carolina, gave his name to one of them; and being a ſecond time driven upon it, gave it the name of Providence. The Engliſh, obſerving the advantageous ſituation of theſe iſlands for being a check on the French and Spaniards, attempted to ſettle them in the reign of Charles II. Some unlucky accidents prevented this ſettlement from being of any advantage, and the Iſle of Providence became an harbour for the Buccaneers or pirates, who for a long time infeſted the American navigation. This obliged the government, in 1718, to ſend out captain Woodes Rogers with a fleet to diſlodge the pirates, and for making a ſettlement. This the captain effected; a fort was erected, and an independant company was ſtationed in the iſland. Ever ſince this laſt ſettlement theſe iſlands have been improving, tho' they advance but ſlowly. In time of war, people gain conſiderably by the prizes condemned there; and at all times by the wrecks, which are frequent in this labyrinth of rocks and ſhelves.

FALKLAND ISLANDS.] Leaving the Bahama and Weſt-India iſlands, we ſhall now proceed along the ſouth-eaſt coaſt of America, as far as the 52d deg. of ſouth lat. where the reader, by looking into the map, will perceive the Falkland iſlands, ſituated near the Streights of Magellan, at the utmoſt extremity of South-America. It has been generally believed, that the richeſt gold mines in Chili are carefully concealed by the Indians, as well knowing that the diſcovery of them would only excite in the Spaniards a greater thirſt for conqueſt and tyranny, and would render their own indepen-

dence more precarious. King Charles II. of England conſidered the diſcovery of this coaſt of ſuch conſequence, that Sir John Narborough was purpoſely fitted out to ſurvey the Streights of Magellan, the neighbouring coaſt of Patagonia, and the Spaniſh ports in that frontier; with directions, if poſſible, to procure ſome intercourſe with the Chilian Indians, who are generally at war, or at leaſt on ill terms with the Spaniards; and to eſtabliſh a commerce and a laſting correſpondence with them. Though Sir John, through accidental cauſes, failed in this attempt, which, in appearance, promiſed ſo many advantages to this nation, his tranſactions upon that coaſt, beſides the many valuable improvements he furniſhed to geography and navigation, are rather an encouragement for further trials of this kind, than any objection againſt them. It appeared by the precautions and fears of the Spaniards, that they were fully convinced of the practicability of the ſcheme he was ſent to execute, and extremely alarmed with the apprehenſion of its conſequences. It is ſaid, that his majeſty king Charles II. was ſo far prepoſſeſſed with the belief of the emoluments which might redound to the public from this expedition, and was ſo eager to be informed of the event of it, that, having intelligence of Sir John Narborough's paſſing through the Downs, on his return, he had not patience to attend his arrival at court, but went himſelf in his barge to Graveſend to meet him.

"As therefore it appears (ſays the author of Anſon's Voyage) that all our future expeditions to the South-Seas muſt run a conſiderable riſk of proving abortive, whilſt in our paſſage thither we are under the neceſſity of touching at the Portugueſe ſettlement of Brazil (where we may certainly depend on having our ſtrength, condition, and deſigns betrayed to the Spaniards) the diſcovery of ſome place more to the ſouthward, where ſhips might refreſh, and ſupply themſelves with the neceſſary ſea-ſtock for their voyage round Cape Horn, would be an expedient that would relieve us from theſe embarraſments, and would ſurely be a matter worthy the attention of the public. Nor does this ſeem difficult to be effected; for we have already the imperfect knowledge of two places, which might, perhaps, on examination, prove extremely convenient for this purpoſe; one of them is Pepy's Iſland, in the latitude of 47, ſouth, and laid down by Dr. Halley about 80 leagues to the eaſtward of Cape Blanco, on the coaſt of Patagonia; the other is *Falkland's Iſles*, in the latitude of 51 and a half, lying nearly ſouth of Pepy's Iſland. The laſt of theſe have been ſeen by many ſhips, both French and Engliſh. Woodes Rogers, who run along the north-eaſt coaſt of theſe iſles in the year 1708, tells us that they extended about

about two degrees in length, and appeared with gentle deſcents from hill to hill, and ſeemed to be good ground, interſperſed with woods, and not deſtitute of harbours. Either of theſe places, as they are iſlands at a conſiderable diſtance from the continent, may be ſuppoſed, from their latitude, to lie in a climate ſufficiently temperate. This, even in time of peace, might be of great conſequence to this nation; and in time of war, would make us maſters of thoſe ſeas."

Falkland iſlands were firſt diſcovered by Sir Richard Hawkins in 1594, the principal of which he named Hawkins Maidenland, in honour of queen Elizabeth. The preſent Engliſh name Falkland, was probably given them by captain Strong, in 1689, and being adopted by Halley, it has from that time been received into our maps.

In the year 1764, the late lord Egmont, then firſt lord of the admiralty, revived the ſcheme of a ſettlement in the South-Seas, and commodore Byron was ſent to take poſſeſſion of Falkland iſlands in the name of his Britannic majeſty, and in his journal repreſents them as a valuable acquiſition. On the other hand, they are repreſented by capt. M'Bride, who in 1766 ſucceeded that gentleman, as the outcaſts of nature. "We found, ſays he, a maſs of iſlands and broken lands, of which the ſoil was nothing but a bog, with no better proſpect than that of barren mountains, beaten by ſtorms almoſt perpetual. Yet this is ſummer, and if the winds of winter hold their natural proportion, thoſe who lie but two cables length from the ſhore, muſt paſs weeks without any communication with it." The plants and vegetables which were planted by Mr. Byron's people, and the fir-tree, a native of rugged and cold climates, had withered away; but goats, ſheep, and hogs, that were carried thither, were found to thrive and increaſe as in other places. Geeſe, of a fiſhey taſte, ſnipes, foxes, ſea-lions, penquins, plenty of good water, and in the ſummer months, wild ſalary, and ſorel, are the natural luxuries of theſe iſlands.

But though the ſoil be barren, and the ſeas tempeſtuous, we have happily ſucceeded in the grand object of a ſettlement here, by the diſcovery of a fine harbour, capable of containing the whole royal navy of England, and ſecured from the fury of the winds by ſurrounding mountains.

By our having the poſſeſſion of one good harbour here, and keeping the royal navy on a reſpectable footing, we ſhall have nothing to fear from all the united force of France, Spain, and Portugal. Whoever turns his eye to the map of America, and obſerves the number of our ſettlements, and their ſituation in reſpect to the poſſeſſions of thoſe powers, will ſee the impoſſibility of their trade eſcaping the vigilance of our cruiſers,

pouring out from every corner of this new world. Add to this, that having hitherto attempted their colonies with ſucceſs, what may we not expect in a future war, from ſuch additional ſtrength, ſo many convenient harbours to refit, or to ſupply our fleets and armies.

PROCLAMATION,

For regulating the Ceſſions made to us in America by the laſt Treaty of Peace.

GEORGE R.

WHEREAS we have taken into our royal conſideration the extenſive and valuable acquiſitions in America, ſecured to our crown by the late definitive treaty of peace, concluded at Paris the 10th day of February laſt; and being deſirous that all our loving ſubjects, as well of our kingdoms as of our colonies in America, may avail themſelves, with all convenient ſpeed, of the great benefits and advantages, which muſt accrue therefrom to their commerce, manufactures, and navigation; we have thought fit, with the advice of our privy-council, to iſſue this our royal proclamation, hereby to publiſh and declare to all our loving ſubjects, that we have, with the advice of our ſaid privy-council, granted our letters patent, under our great ſeal of Great-Britain, to erect within the countries and iſlands, ceded and confirmed to us by the ſaid treaty, four diſtinct and ſeparate governments, ſtiled and called by the names of Quebec, Eaſt-Florida, Weſt-Florida, and Grenada, and limited and bounded as follows, viz.

Firſt, The government of Quebec, bounded on the Labrador coaſt by the river St. John, and from thence by a line drawn from the head of that river through the lake St. John to the ſouth end of the lake Nipiſſim; from whence the ſaid line, croſſing the river St. Lawrence and the lake Champlain in 45 degrees of north latitude, paſſes along the high lands which divide the rivers that empty themſelves into the ſaid river St. Lawrence, from thoſe which fall into the ſea; and alſo along the north coaſt of the Bay des Chaleurs, and the coaſt of the Gulph of St. Lawrence to Cape Roſieres, and from thence croſſing the mouth of the river St. Lawrence by the weſt end of the iſland Anticoſti, terminates at the aforeſaid river of St. John.

Secondly, The government of Eaſt-Florida, bounded to the weſtward, by the Gulph of Mexico and the Apalachicola river;

river; to the northward, by a line drawn from that part of the ſaid river, where the Chatahouchee and Flint rivers meet, to the ſource of St. Mary's river; and by the ſource of the ſaid river to the Atlantic ocean; and to the eaſtward and ſouthward, by the Atlantic ocean, and the Gulph of Florida, including all iſlands within ſix leagues of the ſea-coaſt.

Thirdly, The government of Weſt-Florida, bounded to the ſouthward by the coaſt of Mexico, including all iſlands within ſix leagues of the coaſt from the river Apalachicola to Lake Pontchartrain; to the weſtward, by the ſame lake, the lake Maurepas, and the river Miſſiſippi; to the northward, by a line drawn due eaſt from that part of the river Miſſiſſippi which lies in 31 degrees north latitude, to the river Apalachicola or Chatahouchee; and to the eaſtward by the ſaid river.

Fourthly, The government of Grenada, comprehending the iſland of that name, together with the Grenadines, and the iſlands of Dominico, St. Vincent, and Tobago.

And to the end that the open and free fiſhery of our ſubjects may be extended to, and carried on upon the coaſt of Labrador, and the adjacent iſlands, we have thought fit, with the advice of our ſaid privy-council, to put all that coaſt, from the river St. John's to Hudſon's Streights, together with the iſlands of Anticoſti and Madelaine, and all other ſmaller iſlands lying upon the ſaid coaſt, under the care and inſpection of our governor of Newfoundland.

We have alſo, with the advice of our privy-council, thought fit to annex the iſlands of St. John, and Cape Breton, or Iſle Royale, with the leſſer iſlands adjacent thereto, to our government of Nova Scotia.

We have alſo, with the advice of our privy-council aforeſaid, annexed to our province of Georgia, all the lands lying between the rivers Alatamaha and St. Mary's.

And whereas it will greatly contribute to the ſpeedy ſettling our ſaid new governments, that our loving ſubjects ſhould be informed of our paternal care for the ſecurity of the liberties and properties of thoſe, who are and ſhall become inhabitants thereof: we have thought fit to publiſh and declare, by this our proclamation, that we have, in the letters patent under our great ſeal of Great-Britain, by which the ſaid governments are conſtituted, given expreſs power and direction to our governors of our ſaid colonies reſpectively, that ſo ſoon as the ſtate and circumſtances of the ſaid colonies will admit thereof, they ſhall, with the advice and conſent of the members of our council, ſummon and call general aſſemblies within the ſaid governments reſpectively, in ſuch manner and form as is uſed and directed in thoſe colonies and provinces in America, which

are under our immediate government; and we have alſo given power to the ſaid governors, with the conſent of our ſaid councils, and the repreſentatives of the people, ſo to be ſummoned as aforeſaid, to make, conſtitute, and ordain laws, ſtatutes, and ordinances for the public peace, welfare, and good government of our ſaid colonies, and of the people and inhabitants thereof, as near as may be agreeable to the laws of England, and under ſuch regulations and reſtrictions as are uſed in other colonies; and in the mean time, and until ſuch aſſemblies can be called as aforeſaid, all perſons inhabiting in or reſorting to our ſaid colonies, may confide in our royal protection for the enjoyment of the benefit of the laws of our realm of England; for which purpoſe we have given power under our great ſeal to the governors of our ſaid colonies reſpectively, to erect and conſtitute, with the advice of our ſaid councils reſpectively, courts of judicature and public juſtice within our ſaid colonies, for the hearing and determining all cauſes, as well criminal as civil, according to law and equity, and as near as may be agreeable to the laws of England, with liberty to all perſons, who may think themſelves aggrieved by the ſentences of ſuch courts, in all civil caſes, to appeal, under the uſual limitations and reſtrictions, to us, in our privy-council.

We have alſo thought fit, with the advice of our privy-council as aforeſaid, to give unto the governors and councils of our ſaid three new colonies upon the continent, full power and authority to ſettle and agree with the inhabitants of our ſaid new colonies, or with any other perſons who ſhall reſort thereto, for ſuch lands, tenements, and hereditaments, as are now, or hereafter ſhall be in our power to diſpoſe of, and them to grant to any ſuch perſon or perſons, upon ſuch terms, and under ſuch moderate quit-rents, ſervices, and acknowledgments, as have been appointed and ſettled in our other colonies, and under ſuch other conditions as ſhall appear to us to be neceſſary and expedient for the advantage of the grantees, and the improvement and ſettlement of our ſaid colonies.

And whereas we are deſirous, upon all occaſions, to teſtify our royal ſenſe and approbation of the conduct and bravery of the officers and ſoldiers of our armies, and to reward the ſame, we do hereby command and impower our governors of our ſaid three new colonies, and all other our governors of our ſeveral provinces on the continent of North-America, to grant, without fee or reward, to ſuch reduced officers as have ſerved in North-America during the late war; and to ſuch private ſoldiers as have been or ſhall be diſbanded in America, and are actually reſiding there, and ſhall perſonally apply for the ſame,

the

the following quantities of lands, ſubject, at the expiration of ten years, to the ſame quit-rents as other lands are ſubject to in the province within which they are granted, as alſo ſubject to the ſame conditions of cultivation and improvement, viz.

To every perſon having the rank of a field officer, 5000 acres.

To every captain, 3000 acres.

To every ſubaltern or ſtaff-officer, 2000 acres.

To every non-commiſſion officer, 200 acres.

To every private man, 50 acres.

We do likewiſe authoriſe and require the governors and commanders in chief of all our ſaid colonies upon the continent of North-America, to grant the like quantities of land, and upon the ſame conditions, to ſuch reduced officers of the royal navy of the like rank, as ſerved on board our ſhips of war in North-America, at the times of the reduction of Louiſbourg and Quebec, in the late war, and who ſhall perſonally apply to our reſpective governors for ſuch grants.

And whereas it is juſt and reaſonable, and eſſential to our intereſt, and the ſecurity of our colonies, that the ſeveral nations or tribes of Indians, with whom we are connected, and who live under our protection, ſhould not be moleſted or diſturbed in the poſſeſſion of ſuch parts of our dominions and territories as not having been ceded to or purchaſed by us, are reſerved to them or any of them as their hunting-grounds; we do therefore, with the advice of our privy-council, declare it to be our royal will and pleaſure, that no governor or commander in chief in any of our colonies of Quebec, Eaſt-Florida, or Weſt-Florida, do preſume, upon any pretence whatever, to grant warrants of ſurvey, or paſs any patents for lands beyond the bounds of their reſpective governments, as deſcribed in their commiſſions; as alſo that no governor or commander in chief in any of our other colonies or plantations in America, do preſume for the preſent, and until our further pleaſure be known, to grant warrants of ſurvey, or paſs patents for any lands beyond the heads or ſources of any of the rivers which fall into the Atlantic Ocean from the weſt and north-weſt; or upon any lands whatever, which not having been ceded to, or purchaſed by us, as aforeſaid, are reſerved to the ſaid Indians, or any of them.

And we do further declare it to be our royal will and pleaſure, for the preſent as aforeſaid, to reſerve under our ſovereignty, protection, and dominion, for the uſe of the ſaid Indians, all the lands and territories not included within the limits of our ſaid three new governments, or within the limits of the territory granted to the Hudſon's-Bay company; as

alſo

alſo all the lands and territories lying to the weſtward of the ſources of the rivers which fall into the ſea from the weſt and north-weſt as aforeſaid; and we do hereby ſtrictly forbid, on pain of our diſpleaſure, all our loving ſubjects from making any purchaſes or ſettlements whatever, or taking poſſeſſion of any of the lands above reſerved, without our ſpecial leave and licence for that purpoſe firſt obtained.

And we do further ſtrictly enjoin and require all perſons whatever, who have either wilfully or inadvertently ſeated themſelves upon any lands within the countries above deſcribed, or upon any other lands, which not having been ceded to or purchaſed by us, are ſtill reſerved to the ſaid Indians as aforeſaid, forthwith to remove themſelves from ſuch ſettlements.

And whereas great frauds and abuſes have been committed in the purchaſing lands of the Indians, to the great prejudice of our intereſts, and to the great diſſatisfaction of the ſaid Indians; In order therefore to prevent ſuch irregularities for the future, and to the end that the Indians may be convinced of our juſtice and determined reſolution to remove all reaſonable cauſe of diſcontent, we do, with the advice of our privy-council, ſtrictly enjoyn and require, that no private perſon do preſume to make any purchaſe from the ſaid Indians of any lands reſerved to the ſaid Indians within thoſe parts of our colonies, where we have thought proper to allow ſettlement; but that if at any time any of the ſaid Indians ſhould be inclined to diſpoſe of the ſaid lands, the ſame only ſhould be purchaſed only for us, in our name, at ſome public meeting or aſſembly of the ſaid Indians, to be held for that purpoſe by the governor or commander in chief of our colony reſpectively, within which they ſhall lie; and in caſe they ſhould lie within the limits of any proprietary government, they ſhall be purchaſed only for the uſe and in the name of ſuch proprietors, conformable to ſuch directions and inſtructions as we or they ſhall think proper to give for that purpoſe. And we do, by the advice of our privy-council, declare and enjoyn, that the trade with ſaid Indians ſhall be free and open to all our ſubjects whatever; provided that every perſon, who may incline to trade with the ſaid Indians, do take out a licence for carrying on ſuch a trade, from the governor or commander in chief of any of our colonies reſpectively, where ſuch perſon ſhall reſide, and alſo give ſecurity to obſerve ſuch regulations as we ſhall at any time think fit, by ourſelves or by our commiſſaries, to be appointed for this purpoſe, to direct and appoint for the benefit of the ſaid trade: And we do hereby authoriſe, enjoyn, and require the governors and commanders in chief of all our colonies, reſpectively, as well as thoſe under our immediate government,

government, as thoſe under the government and direction of proprietaries, to grant ſuch licences without fee or reward; taking eſpecial care to inſert therein a condition that ſuch licence ſhall be void, and the ſecurity forfeited, in caſe the perſon, to whom the ſame is granted, ſhall refuſe or neglect to obſerve ſuch regulations as we ſhall think proper to preſcribe as aforeſaid.

And we do further expreſsly enjoin and require all officers whatever, as well military as thoſe employed in the management and direction of Indian affairs within the territories reſerved, as aforeſaid, for the uſe of the ſaid Indians, to ſeize and apprehend all perſons whatever, who, ſtanding charged with treaſons, miſpriſions of treaſons, murders, or other felonies and miſdemeanours, ſhall fly from juſtice and take refuge in the ſaid territory, and to ſend them under a proper guard to the colony where the crime was committed of which they ſtand accuſed, in order to take their trial for the ſame.

Given at our court in St. James's, the 7th day of October, 1763, in the third year of our reign,

GOD Save the KING.

SPANISH DOMINIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

NEW MEXICO, INCLUDING CALIFORNIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 2000, Breadth 1600	between	94 and 126 W. longitude. 23 and 43 N. latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by unknown lands on the north; by Louiſiana, on the eaſt; by old Mexico, and the Pacific ocean, on the ſouth; and by the ſame ocean, on the weſt.

Diviſions.	Subdiviſions.	Chief towns.
North-eaſt diviſion	New Mexico Proper —	SANTA FE, W. lon. 104. N. lat. 36.
South-eaſt diviſion	Apacheira —	St. Antonio.
South diviſion	Sonora — —	Tuape.
Weſt diviſion	California, a peninſula —	St. Juan.

SOIL AND CLIMATE.] Theſe countries lying for the moſt part within the temperate zone, have a climate in many places extremely

extremely agreeable, and a ſoil productive of every thing, either for profit or delight. In California however they experience great heats in the ſummer, particularly towards the ſea-coaſt; but in the inland country, the climate is more temperate, and in winter even cold.

FACE AND PRODUCE OF THE COUNTRY. } The natural hiſtory of theſe countries is as yet in its infancy. The Spaniards themſelves know little of the matter, and the little they know, they are unwilling to communicate. Their authority being on a precarious footing with the Indians, who here at leaſt ſtill preſerve their independance; they are jealous of diſcovering the natural advantages of theſe countries, which might be an inducement to the other nations of Europe, to form ſettlements there. It is certain, however, that in general the provinces of New Mexico and California, are extremely beautiful and pleaſant; the face of the country is agreeably varied with plains, interſected by rivers, and adorned with gentle eminences covered with various kinds of trees, ſome producing excellent fruit. With reſpect to the value of the gold mines in thoſe countries, nothing poſitive can be aſſerted. They have undoubtedly enough of natural productions, to render them advantageous colonies to any but the Spaniards. In California there falls in the morning a great quantity of dew, which, ſettling on the roſe leaves, candies, and becomes hard like manna, having all the ſweetneſs of refined ſugar, without its whiteneſs. There is alſo another very ſingular natural production. In the heart of the country there are plains of ſalt, quite firm and clear as chryſtal, which conſidering the vaſt quantities of fiſh found on its coaſts, might render it an invaluable acquiſition to any induſtrious nation.

INHABITANTS, HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, RELIGION AND COMMERCE. } The Spaniſh ſettlements here are comparatively weak; though they are encreaſing every day in proportion as new mines are diſcovered. The inhabitants are chiefly Indians, whom the Spaniſh miſſionaries have in many places brought over to Chriſtianity, to a civilized life, to raiſe corn and wine, which they now export pretty largely to Old Mexico. California was diſcovered by Cortez, the great conqueror of Mexico; our famous navigator Sir Francis Drake took poſſeſſion of it in 1578, and his right was confirmed by the principal king, or chief in the whole country. This title however the government of Great-Britain have not hitherto attempted to vindicate, tho' California is admirably ſituated for trade, and on its coaſt has a pearl fiſhery of great value. The inhabitants and government here do not materially differ from thoſe of Old Mexico.

OLD MEXICO or NEW SPAIN.

Situation and extent.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 2000	between	83 and 110 W. longitude.
Breadth 600		8 and 30 N. latitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED by New Mexico, or Granada, on the north; by the gulph of Mexico, on the north-eaſt; by Terra Firma, on the ſouth-eaſt; and by the Pacific ocean, on the ſouth-weſt, containing three audiences, viz.

Audiences.	Chief Towns.
1. Galicia or Guadalajarra	Guadalajarra.
2. Mexico Proper	Mexico, W. lon. 102-35. N. lat. 20.
	Acapulco
	Vera Cruz.
3. Guatimala	Guatimala.

Bays.] On the north-ſea are the gulphs or bays of Mexico, Campeachy, Vera Cruz, and Honduras; in the Pacific ocean, or South-Sea, are the bays Micoya and Amapalla, Acapulco, and Salinas.

Capes.] Theſe are cape Sardo, cape St. Martin, cape Cornducedo, cape Catoche, cape Honduras, cape Cameron, and cape Gracias Dios, in the North Sea.

Cape Marques, cape Spirito Sancto, cape Corientes, cape Gallero, cape Blanco, cape Burica, cape Prucreos, and cape Mala, in the South-Sea.

Winds.] In the gulph of Mexico, and the adjacent ſeas, there are ſtrong north winds from October to March, about the full and change of the moon. Trade winds prevail every where at a diſtance from land within the tropics. Near the coaſt in the South-Sea, they have their periodical winds, viz. Monſoons, and ſea and land breezes, as in Aſia.

Soil and climate.] Mexico lying for the moſt part within the torrid zone, is exceſſively hot, and on the eaſtern coaſt, where the land is low, marſhy, and conſtantly flooded in the rainy ſeaſons, it is likewiſe extremely unwholeſome. The inland country, however, aſſumes a better aſpect, and the air is of a milder temperament; on the weſtern ſide the land is not ſo low, as on the eaſtern, much better in quality, and full of plantations. The ſoil of Mexico in general is of a good variety, and would not refuſe any ſort of grain were

the induſtry of the inhabitants to correſpond with their natural advantages.

PRODUCE.] Mexico, like all the tropical countries, is rather more abundant in fruits than in grain. Pine apples, pomegranates, oranges, lemons, citrons, figs, and cocoa-nuts, are here in the greateſt plenty and perfection. Mexico produces alſo a prodigious quantity of ſugar, eſpecially towards the gulph of Mexico, and the province of Guaxaca and Guatimala, ſo that here are more ſugar mills than in any other part of Spaniſh America. But what is conſidered as the chief glory of this country, and what firſt induced the Spaniards to form ſettlements upon it, are the mines of gold and ſilver. The chief mines of gold are in Veragua and New Granada, confining upon Darien and Terra Firma. Thoſe of ſilver, which are much more rich, as well as numerous, are found in ſeveral parts, but in none ſo much as in the province of Mexico. The mines of both kinds are always found in the moſt barren and mountainous part of the country; nature making amends in one reſpect for her defects in another. The working of the gold and ſilver mines depends on the ſame principles. When the ore is dug out, compounded of ſeveral heterogeneous ſubſtances, mixed with the precious metals, it is broke into ſmall pieces by a mill, and afterwards waſhed, by which means it is diſengaged from the earth, and other ſoft bodies which clung to it. Then it is mixed with mercury, which, of all ſubſtances, has the ſtrongeſt attraction for gold, and likewiſe a ſtronger attraction for ſilver, than the other ſubſtances which are united with it in the ore. By means of the mercury, therefore, the gold and ſilver are firſt ſeparated from the heterogeneous matter, and then by ſtraining and evaporation, they are diſunited from the mercury itſelf. Of the gold and ſilver, which the mines of Mexico afford, great things have been ſaid. Thoſe who have enquired moſt into this ſubject, compute the revenues of Mexico at twenty-four millions of our money; and it is well known that this, with the other provinces of Spaniſh America, ſupply the whole world with ſilver. The other articles next in importance to gold and ſilver, are the cochineal and cocoa. After much diſpute concerning the nature of the former, it ſeems at laſt agreed, that it is of the animal kind, and of the ſpecies of the gall inſects. It adheres to the plant called Opuntia, and ſucks the juice of the fruit, which is of a crimſon colour. It is from this juice that the cochineal derives it value, which conſiſts in dying all ſorts of the fineſt ſcarlet, crimſon and purple. It is alſo uſed in medicine as a ſudorific, and as a cordial; and it is computed that the Spaniards annually export

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no leſs than nine hundred thouſand pounds weight of this commodity, to anſwer the purpoſes of medicine and dying. The cocoa, of which chocolate is made, is the next conſiderable article in the natural hiſtory and commerce of Mexico. It grows on a tree of a middling ſize which bears a pod about the ſize and ſhape of a cucumber, containing the cocoa. The Spaniſh commerce in this article is immenſe; and ſuch is the internal conſumption, as well as external call for it, that a ſmall garden of cocoa's is ſaid to produce to the owner, twenty thouſand crowns a year. At home it makes a principal part of their diet, and is found wholeſome, nutricious, and ſuitable to the climate. This country likewiſe produces ſilk, but not in ſuch abundance as to make any remarkable part of their export. Cotton is here in great abundance, and on account of its lightneſs is the common wear of the inhabitants.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, GOVERNMENT AND MANNERS. We ſhall place theſe heads under one point of view, becauſe, the reader will ſoon be ſenſible, they are very nearly connected. We have already deſcribed the original inhabitants of Mexico, and the conqueſt of that country by the Spaniards. The preſent inhabitants may be divided into Whites, Indians, and negroes. The Whites are either born in Old Spain, or they are creoles, i. e. natives of Spaniſh America. The former are chiefly employed in government or trade, and have nearly the ſame character with the Spaniards in Europe; only a ſtill more conſiderable portion of pride; for they conſider themſelves as entitled to every high diſtinction as natives of Europe, and look upon the other inhabitants as many degrees beneath them. The creoles have all the bad qualities of the Spaniards, from whom they are deſcended, without that courage, firmneſs, and patience, which makes the praiſe-worthy part of the Spaniſh character. Naturally weak and effeminate, they dedicate the greateſt part of their lives to loitering, and inactive pleaſures. Luxurious without variety or elegance, and expenſive with great parade, and little conveniency, their general character is no more than a grave and ſpecious inſignificance. From idleneſs and conſtitution their whole buſineſs is amour and intrigue; and their ladies of conſequence are not at all diſtinguiſhed for their chaſtity or domeſtic virtues. The Indians, who notwithſtanding the devaſtations of the firſt invaders, remain in great numbers, are become by continual oppreſſion and indignity, a dejected timorous and miſerable race of mortals. The blacks here, like all thoſe in other parts of the world, are ſtubborn, hardy, and well adapted for the groſs ſlavery they endure.

Such

Such is the general character of the inhabitants, not only in Mexico, but the greateſt part of Spaniſh America. The civil government is adminiſtered by tribunals, called Audiences, which bear a reſemblance to the parliaments in France. In theſe courts the viceroy of the king of Spain preſides. His employment is the greateſt truſt and power, which his Catholic majeſty has in his diſpoſal, and is perhaps the richeſt government entruſted to any ſubject in the world. The greatneſs of the viceroy's office is diminiſhed by the ſhortneſs of its duration. For, as jealouſy is the leading feature of Spaniſh politicks, in whatever regards America, no officer is allowed to maintain his power for more than three years, which no doubt may have a good effect in ſecuring the authority of the crown of Spain, but is attended with unhappy conſequences to the miſerable inhabitants, who become a prey to every new governor. The clergy are extremely numerous in Mexico, and it has been computed, that prieſts, monks and nuns of all orders, make upwards of a fifth of all the white inhabitants, both here and in the other parts of Spaniſh America. It is impoſſible indeed to find a richer field, or one more peculiarly adapted to eccleſiaſtics in any part of the world. The people are ſuperſtitious, ignorant, rich, lazy, and licentious: with ſuch materials to work upon, it is not remarkable, that the church ſhould enjoy one fourth of the revenues of the whole kingdom. It is more ſurpriſing, that it has not a half.

COMMERCE, CITIES, AND SHIPPING. The trade of Mexico conſiſts of three great branches, which extends over the whole known world. It carries on a traffic with Europe, by la Vera Cruz, ſituated on the gulph of Mexico or North-Sea; with the Eaſt Indies, by Acapulco on the South-Sea, and with South-America, by the ſame port. Theſe two ſea-ports Vera Cruz and Acapulco, are wonderfully well ſituated for the commercial purpoſes to which they are applied. It is by means of the former, that Mexico pours her wealth over all the whole world; and receives in return the numberleſs luxuries and neceſſaries, which Europe affords to her, and which the indolence of her inhabitants will never permit them to acquire for themſelves. To this port the fleet from Cadiz, called the Flota, conſiſting of three men of war, as a convoy, and 14 large merchant ſhips, annually arrive about the beginning of November. Its cargo conſiſts of every commodity and manufacture of Europe, and there are few nations but have more concern in it than the Spaniards, who ſend out little more than wine and oil. The profit of theſe, with the freight and commiſſion to the merchants, and duty to the king, is all the advantage which Spain derives from her American commerce.

commerce. When all the goods are landed and diſpoſed of at La Vera Cruz, the fleet takes in the plate, precious ſtones, and other commodities for Europe. Sometimes in May they are ready to depart. From La Vera Cruz, they ſail to the Havanna, in the iſle of Cuba, which is the rendezvous where they meet the galleons, another fleet which carries on the trade of Terra Firma, by Carthagena, and of Peru by Panama and Porto Bello. When all are collected and provided with a convoy neceſſary for their ſafety, they ſteer for Old Spain.

Acapulco is the ſea-port, by which the communication is kept up between the different parts of the Spaniſh empire in America and the Eaſt Indies. About the month of December, the great galeon, attended by a large ſhip as a convoy, which make the only communication between the Philippines and Mexico, annually arrive here. The cargoes of theſe ſhips, for the convoy, though in an under-hand manner, likewiſe carries goods, conſiſt of all the rich commodities and manufactures of the eaſt. At the ſame time the annual ſhip from Lima the capital of Peru comes in, and is not computed to bring leſs than two millions of pieces of eight in ſilver, beſides quickſilver and other valuable commodities, to be laid out in the purchaſe of the galeons cargoes. Several other ſhips from different parts of Chili and Peru, meet upon the ſame occaſion. A great fair, in which the commodities of all parts of the world are bartered for one another, laſts thirty days. The galeon then prepares for her voyage, loaded with ſilver and ſuch European goods as have been thought neceſſary. The Spaniards, though this trade be carried on entirely through their hands, and in the very heart of their dominions, are comparatively but ſmall gainers by it. For as they allow the Dutch, Great Britain, and other commercial ſtates, to furniſh the greater part of the cargo of the Flota, ſo, the Spaniſh inhabitants of the Philippines, tainted with the ſame indolence which ruined their European anceſtors, permit the Chineſe merchants to furniſh the greater part of the cargo of the galeon. Notwithſtanding what has been ſaid of Vera Cruz, and Acapulco, the city of Mexico, the capital of the empire, ought to be conſidered as the center of commerce in this part of the world. For here the principal merchants reſide, and the greateſt part of the buſineſs is negotiated. The Eaſt India goods from Acapulco, and the European from Vera Cruz, all paſs thro' this city. Hither all the gold and ſilver come to be coined, here the king's fifth is depoſited, and here is wrought all thoſe utenſils and ornaments in plate which is every year ſent into Europe. The city itſelf breathes the air of the higheſt magnificence, and according to the beſt account contains about 80,000 inhabitants.

Spaniſh Dominions in SOUTH AMERICA.

TERRA FIRMA, or Caſtilla del Oro.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 1400 Breadth 700	between	60 and 82 W. longitude. the equator and 12 N. lat.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the north ſea (part of the Atlantic ocean) on the north; by the ſame ſea and Surinam, on the eaſt; by the country of the Amazons and Peru, on the South; and the Pacific ocean and New Spain, on the weſt.

Diviſions.	Subdiviſions.	Chief towns.
The north diviſion contains the provinces of	1. Terra-firma Proper, or Darien	Porto Bello PANAMA, W. lon. 81-52 N. lat. 8-50
	2. Carthagena	Carthagena
	3. St. Martha	St. Martha
	4. Rio de la Hacha	Rio de la Hacha
	5. Venezuela	Venezuela
	6. Comana	Comana
	7. New Andaluſia, or Paria	St. Thomas
The ſouth diviſion contains the provinces of	1. New Granada	Santa Fé de Bagota
	2. Popayan	Popayan.

BAYS, CAPES, &c.] The Iſthmus of Darien, or Terra-firma proper, joins North and South America. A line drawn from Porto Bello in the north, to Panama in the South-Sea, or rather a little weſt of theſe two towns, is the proper limit between North and South America, and here the Iſthmus or Neck of land is only 60 miles over.

The principal bays in Terra-firma are, the bay of Panama, and the bay of St. Michael's in the South-Sea; the bay of Porto Bello, the gulph of Darien, Sino bay, Carthagena bay and harbour, the gulph of Venezuela, the bay of Maracaibo, the gulph of Trieſto, the bay of Guaira, the bay of Curiaco, and the gulph of Paria or Andaluſia, in the north ſea.

The

The chief capes are, Samblas point, Point Canoa, Cape del Agua, Swart point, Cape de Vela, Cape Conquibacoa, Cape Cabelo, Cape Blanco, Cape Galera, Cape Three Points; and Cape Naſſau; all on the north ſhore of Terra-firma.

CLIMATE.] The climate here, particularly in the northern diviſions, is extremely hot; and it was found by Ulloa, that the heat of the warmeſt day in Paris, is continual at Carthagena; the exceſſive heats raiſe the vapour of the ſea, which is precipitated in ſuch rains as ſeem to threaten a general deluge. Great part of the country therefore, is almoſt continually flooded; and this, together with the exceſſive heat, ſo impregnates the air with vapours, that in many provinces, particularly about Popayan and Porto Bello, it is extremely unwholeſome.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] The ſoil of this country, like that of the greater part of South America, is wonderfully rich and fruitful. It is impoſſible to view, without admiration, the perpetual verdure of the woods, the luxuriancy of the plains, and the towering height of the mountains. This however only applies to the inland country, for the coaſts are generally barren ſand, and uncapable of bearing any ſpecies of grain. The trees, moſt remarkable for their dimenſions, are the caobo, the cedar, the maria, and balſam tree. The manzanillo tree is particularly remarkable. It bears a fruit reſembling an apple, but which, under this ſpecious appearance, contains the moſt ſubtile poiſon, againſt which common oil is found to be the beſt antidote. The malignity of this tree is ſuch, that if a perſon only ſleeps under it, he finds his body all ſwelled, and racked with the ſevereſt tortures. The beaſts from inſtinct always avoid it. The Habella de Carthagena is the fruit of a ſpecies of willow, and contains a kernel reſembling an almond, but leſs white, and extremely better. This kernal is found to be an excellent and never failing remedy for the bite of the moſt venomous vipers and ſerpents, which are very frequent all over this country. There were formerly rich mines of gold in this country, which are now in a great meaſure exhauſted. The ſilver, iron, and copper mines, have been ſince opened, and the inhabitants find emeralds, ſapphires, and other precious ſtones.

ANIMALS.] In treating of North America we have taken notice of many of the animals that are found in the ſouthern parts, it is therefore unneceſſary to repeat them hereafter. Among thoſe peculiar to this country, the moſt remarkable is the ſloth, or as it is called by way of deriſion, the Swift Peter. It bears a reſemblance to an ordinary monkey in ſhape

and ſize, but is of a moſt wretched appearance, with its bare hams and feet, and its ſkin all over corrugated. He ſtands in no need of either chain or hutch, never ſtirring unleſs compelled by hunger; and he is ſaid to be ſeveral minutes in moving one of his legs, nor will blows make him mend his pace. When he moves, every effort is attended with ſuch a plaintive, and at the ſame time, ſo diſagreeable a cry, as at once produces pity and diſguſt. In this cry conſiſts the whole defence of this wretched animal. For on the firſt hoſtile approach it is natural for him to be in motion, which is always accompanied with diſguſtful howlings, ſo that his purſuer flies much more ſpeedily in his turn, to be beyond the reach of this horrid noiſe. When this animal finds no wild fruits on the ground, he looks out with a great deal of pains for a tree well loaded, which he aſcends with a world of uneaſineſs, moving, and crying, and ſtopping by turns. At length having mounted, he plucks off all the fruit, and throws it on the ground, to ſave himſelf ſuch another troubleſome journey; and rather than be fatigued with coming down the tree, he gathers himſelf in a bunch, and with a ſhriek drops to the ground.

The monkeys in theſe countries are very numerous; they keep together 20 or 30 in company, rambling over the woods, leaping from tree to tree, and if they meet with a ſingle perſon, he is in danger of being torn to pieces by them; at leaſt they chatter, and make a frightful noiſe, throwing things at him; they hang themſelves by the tail, on the boughs, and ſeem to threaten him all the way he paſſes; but where two or three people are together, they uſually ſcamper away.

NATIVES.] Beſides the Indians in this country, who fall under our general deſcription, vol. II. page 338, there is another ſpecies of a fair complexion, delicate habit, and of a ſmaller ſtature than the ordinary Indians. Their diſpoſitions too are more ſoft and effeminate; but what principally diſtinguiſhes them is their large weak blue eyes, which, unable to bear the light of the ſun, ſee beſt by moon light, and from which they are therefore called Moon-eyed Indians.

INHABITANTS, COMMERCE, AND CHIEF TOWNS.] We have already mentioned how this country fell into the hands of the Spaniards. The inhabitants therefore do not materially differ from thoſe of Mexico. To what we have obſerved therefore with regard to that country, it is only neceſſary to add that the original inhabitants of Spain are variouſly intermixed with the negroes and Indians. Theſe intermixtures form various gradations, which are carefully diſtinguiſhed from each other, becauſe every perſon expects to be regarded in proportion as a greater ſhare of the Spaniſh blood runs

runs in his veins. The firſt diſtinction, ariſing from the intermarriage of the whites with the negroes, is that of the mulattoes, which is well known. Next to theſe are the Tercerones, produced from a white and mulatto. From the intermarriage with theſe and the whites, ariſe the Quarterones, who, though ſtill nearer the former, are diſgraced with a tint of negro blood. But the produce of theſe and the whites, are the Quinterones, which is very remarkable, are not to be diſtinguiſhed from the real Spaniards, but by being of a ſtill fairer complexion. The ſame gradations are formed in a contrary order, by the intermixture of the mulattoes and the negroes; and beſides theſe, there are a thouſand others, hardly diſtinguiſhable by the natives themſelves. The commerce of this country is chiefly carried on from the ports of Panama, Carthagena, and Porto Bello; which are three of the moſt conſiderable cities in Spaniſh America; and each containing ſeveral thouſand inhabitants. Here there are annual fairs for American, Indian, and European commodities. Among the natural merchandiſe of Terra Firma, the pearls found in the coaſt, particularly in the bay of Panama, are not the leaſt conſiderable. An immenſe number of negro ſlaves, are employed in fiſhing for theſe, and have arrived at wonderful dexterity at this occupation. They are ſometimes however devoured by fiſh, particularly the ſharks, while they dive to the bottom, or cruſhed againſt the ſhelves of the rocks. The government of Terra Firma is on the ſame footing with that of Mexico.

PERU.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 1800	between	the equator and 25 ſouth lat.
Breadth 500		60 and 81 weſt longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Terra Firma, on the north; by the mountains, or Cordeleiria's des Andes, eaſt; by Chili, ſouth; and by the Pacific ocean, weſt.

Diviſions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
The north diviſion	Quito — —	Quito Payta
The middle diviſion	Lima, or Los Reyes	Lima, 77-30 W.lon. 12-15 S. lat. Cuſco, and Callao.
The ſouth diviſion	Los Charcos —	Potoſi Porco.

SEAS, BAYS, AND HARBOURS.] The only ſea which borders on Peru is the Pacific ocean or South-Sea. The principal bays and harbours are Payta, Malabrigo, Cuanchaco, Coſma, Vermeio, Guara, Callao, the port town to Lima, Ylo, and Arica.

RIVERS.] There is a river whoſe waters are as red as blood. The rivers Granda, or Cagdalena, Oronoque, Amazon, and Plate, riſe in the Andes.

A great many other rivers riſe in the Andes, and fall into the Pacific ocean, between the equator and eight degrees S. Lat.

PETRIFIED WATERS.] There are ſome waters, which, in their courſe, turn into ſtone; and fountains of liquid matter, called Coppey, reſembling pitch and tar, and uſed by ſeamen for the ſame purpoſe.

SOIL AND CLIMATE.] Though Peru lies within the torrid zone, yet, having on one ſide the ſouth Sea, and on the other the great ridge of the Andes, it is not ſo ſtifled with heat, as the other tropical countries. The ſky too, which is generally cloudy, ſhields them from the direct rays of the ſun; but what is extremely ſingular, it never rains in Peru. This defect, however, is ſufficiently ſupplied by a ſoft kindly dew, which falls regularly every night on the ground, and ſo refreſhes the plants and graſs, as to produce in many places the greateſt fertility. Along the ſea coaſt Peru is generally a dry barren ſand, except by the banks of rivers, where it is extremely fertile, as are all the low lands in the inland country.

ANIMAL, VEGETABLE, AND MINERAL PRODUCTIONS.] There are many gold mines in the northern part, not far from Lima. Silver too is produced in great abundance in various provinces; but the old mines are conſtantly decaying, and new ones daily opened. The towns ſhift with the mines. That of Potoſi, when the ſilver there was found at the eaſieſt expence, for now having gone ſo deep, it is not ſo eaſily brought up, contained 90,000 ſouls, Spaniards and Indians, of which the latter were ſix to one. The northern part of Peru produces wine in great plenty. Wool is another article of its produce, and is no leſs remarkable for its fineneſs, than for the animals on which it grows; theſe they call Lamas and Vicunnas. The Lama has a ſmall head, in ſome meaſure reſembling that of a horſe and ſheep at the ſame time. It is about the ſize of a ſtag, its upper lip is cleft like that of a hare, through which, when enraged, it ſpits a kind of venomous juice, which enflames the part it falls on. The fleſh of the Lama is agreeable and ſalutary, and the animal is not only uſeful in affording wool and food, but alſo as a beaſt of burden.

burden. It can endure amazing fatigue, and will travel over the ſteepeſt mountains with a burden of 60 or 70 lb. It feeds very ſparingly, and never drinks. The Vicunna is ſmaller and ſwifter than the Lama, and produces wool ſtill finer in quality. In the Vicunna too is found the Bezoar ſtones, regarded as a ſpecific againſt poiſons. The next great article in their produce and commerce is the Peruvian bark, known better by the name of Jeſuits bark. The tree which produces this invaluable drug, grows principally in the mountainous parts of Peru, and particularly in the province of Quito. The beſt bark is always produced in the high and rocky grounds; the tree which bears it, is about the ſize of a cherry tree, and produces a kind of fruit, reſembling the almond. But it is only the bark, which has theſe excellent qualities that render it ſo uſeful in intermitting fevers, and other diſorders to which daily experience extends the application of it. Guinea pepper, or Cayenne pepper, as we call it, is produced in the greateſt abundance in the vale of Arica, a diſtrict in the ſouthern parts of Peru, from whence they export it annually to the value of 600,000 crowns. Peru is likewiſe the only part of Spaniſh America, which produces quickſilver, an article of immenſe value, conſidering the various purpoſes to which it is applied, and eſpecially the purification of gold and ſilver. The principal mine of this ſingular metal is at a place called Guancavelica, where it is found in a whitiſh maſs reſembling brick ill burned. This ſubſtance is volatiliſed by fire, and received in ſteam by a combination of glaſs veſſels, where it condenſes by means of a little water at the bottom of each veſſel, and forms a pure heavy liquid.

MANUFACTURES, TRADE AND CITIES.] We join theſe articles here becauſe of their intimate connection; for, except in the cities we ſhall deſcribe, there is no commerce worth mentioning. The city of Lima is the capital of Peru, and of the whole Spaniſh empire; its ſituation in the middle of a ſpacious and delightful valley, was fixed upon by the famous Pizarro, as the moſt proper for a city, which he expected would preſerve his memory. It is ſo well watered by the river Rimac, that the inhabitants, like thoſe of London, command a ſtream, each for his own uſe. There are many very magnificent ſtructures, particularly churches, in this city; though the houſes in general are built of ſlight materials, the equality of the climate, and want of rain, rendering ſtone houſes unneceſſary; and beſides it is found, that theſe are more apt to ſuffer by ſhocks of the earth which are frequent and dreadful all over this province. Lima is about two leagues from the ſea, extends in length two miles, and in breadth one and a

quarter. It contains about 60,000 inhabitants, of whom the whites amount to a ſixth part. One remarkable fact is ſufficient to demonſtrate the wealth of this city. When the viceroy, the duke de la Palada, made his entry into Lima in 1682, the inhabitants, to do him honour, cauſed the ſtreets to be paved with ingots of ſilver, amounting to ſeventeen millions ſterling. All travellers ſpeak with amazement of the decorations of the churches, with gold, ſilver and precious ſtones, which load and ornament even the walls. The only thing that could juſtify theſe accounts is the immenſe richneſs and extenſive commerce of the inhabitants. The merchants of Lima may be ſaid to deal with all the quarters of the world, and that both on their own accounts, and as factors for others. Here all the product of the ſouthern provinces are conveyed, in order to be exchanged at the harbour of Lima, for ſuch articles as the inhabitants of Peru ſtand in need of; the fleet from Europe, and the Eaſt Indies, land at the ſame harbour, and the commodities of Aſia, Europe, and America, are there bartered for each other. What there is no immediate vent for, the merchants of Lima purchaſe on their own accounts, and lay up in warehouſes, knowing that they muſt ſoon find an outlet for them, ſince by one channel or other they have a communication with almoſt every commercial nation. But all the wealth of the inhabitants, all the beauty of the ſituation, and fertility of the climate of Lima, are not ſufficient to compenſate for one diſaſter, which always threatens, and has ſometimes actually befallen them. In the year 1747, a moſt tremendous earthquake laid three-fourths of this city level with the ground, and entirely demoliſhed Callao, the port town belonging to it. Never was any deſtruction more terrible or perfect, not more than one of three thouſand inhabitants being left to record this dreadful calamity, and he by a providence the moſt ſingular and extraordinary imaginable.—This man, who happened to be on a fort which overlooked the harbour, perceived in one minute the inhabitants running from their houſes in the utmoſt terror and confuſion; the ſea, as is uſual on ſuch occaſions, receding to a conſiderable diſtance, returned in mountainous waves, foaming with the violence of the agitation, buried the inhabitants for ever in its boſom, and immediately all was ſilent; but the ſame wave which deſtroyed the town, drove a little boat by the place where the man ſtood, into which he threw himſelf and was ſaved. Cuſco, the antient capital of the Peruvian empire, has already been taken notice of. As it lies in the mountainous country, and at a diſtance from the ſea, it has been long on the decline. But it is ſtill a very conſiderable place, and contains above 40,000 inhabitants,

inhabitants, three parts Indians, and very induſtrious in manufacturing baize, cotton, and leather. They have alſo both here and in Quito, which ſhall be mentioned directly, a particular taſte for painting, and their productions in this way, ſome of which have been admired in Italy, are diſperſed over all South America. Quito is next to Lima in populouſneſs, if not ſuperior to it. It is like Cuſco, an inland city, and having no mines in its neighbourhood, is chiefly famous for its manufactures of cotton, wool, and flax, which ſupply the conſumption over all the kingdom of Peru.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS AND GOVERNMENT. It would be in vain to pretend ſaying any thing deciſive with regard to the number of inhabitants in Peru. The Spaniards themſelves are remarkably ſilent on this head. It has been gueſſed by ſome writers, that in all Spaniſh America, there are about three millions of Spaniards and creoles of different colours; and undoubtedly the number of Indians is much greater; though neither in any reſpect proportionable to the wealth, fertility, and extent of the country. The manners of the inhabitants do not remarkably differ over the whole of the Spaniſh dominions. Pride and lazineſs are the two predominant paſſions. It is agreed on by the moſt authentic travellers, that the manners of Old Spain have degenerated in its colonies. The creoles, and all the other deſcendants of the Spaniards, according to the above diſtinctions, are guilty of many mean and pilfering vices, which a true born Caſtilian could not think of but with deteſtation. This no doubt in part ariſes from the contempt in which all but the real natives of Spain are held in the Indies, mankind generally behaving according to the treatment they meet with from others. In Lima the Spaniſh pride has made the greateſt deſcents, and many of the firſt nobility are employed in commerce. It is in this city that the viceroy reſides, whoſe authority extends over all Peru, except Quito, which has been lately detached from it. The viceroy is as abſolute as the king of Spain, but as his territories are ſo extenſive, it is neceſſary that he ſhould part with a ſhare of his authority to the ſeveral audiencies or courts eſtabliſhed over the kingdom. There is a treaſury court eſtabliſhed at Lima, for receiving the fifth of the produce of the mines, and certain taxes paid by the Indians, which belong to the king of Spain.

CHILI.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 1200	between	25 and 45 south latitude.
Breadth 500		65 and 85 west longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Peru on the north; by La Plata on the east; by Patagonia on the south; and by the Pacific ocean on the west.

Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
On the west side of the Andes	Chili Proper	St. Jago, W. lon. 77. S. lat. 34.
		Baldivia.
		Imperial.
On the east side of the Andes	Cuyo, or Cutio	St. John de Frontieræ.

LAKES.] The principal lakes are those of Tagatagua near St. Jago, and that of Paren. Besides which, they have several salt-water lakes, that have a communication with the sea part of the year. In stormy weather the sea forces a way through them, and leaves them full of fish; but in the hot season the water congeals, leaving a crust of fine white salt a foot thick.

BAYS, SEAS, AND HARBOURS.] The only sea that borders upon Chili, is that of the Pacific ocean on the west.

The principal bays or harbours are Copiapo, Coquimbo, Govanadore, Valparisо, Iata, Conception, Santa Maria, La Moucha, Baldivia, Brewers-haven, and Castro.

CLIMATE, SOIL AND PRODUCE.] These are not remarkably different from the same in Peru; and if there be any difference, it is in favour of Chili. There is indeed no part of the world more favoured than this is, with respect to the gifts of nature. For here, not only the tropical fruits, but all species of grain, of which a considerable part is exported, come to great perfection. Their animal productions are the same with those of Peru, and they have gold almost in every river.

INHABITANTS.] This country is very thinly inhabited. The original natives are still in a great measure unconquered and uncivilized; and leading a wandering life, attentive to no object but their preservation from the Spanish yoke, are in a very unfavourable condition, with regard to population. The Spaniards do not amount to above 20,000; and the Indians, negroes and mulattoes, are not supposed to be thrice that number.

COMMERCE.] The foreign commerce of Chili is entirely confined to Peru, Panama, and ſome parts of Mexico. To the former they export annually corn ſufficient for 60,000 men. Their other exports are hemp, which is raiſed in no other part of the South Seas, hides, tallow, and ſalted proviſions, and receive in return the commodities of Europe, and the Eaſt Indies, which are brought to the port of Callao.

PARAGUAY, or LA PLATA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	1500	between	12 and 37 ſouth latitude.
Breadth	1000		50 and 75 weſt longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Amazonia, on the north; by Braſil, eaſt; by Patagonia, on the ſouth; and by Peru and Chili, weſt.

Diviſions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
Eaſt diviſion contains	Paraguay —	Aſſumption
	Parana —	St. Anne
	Guaira —	Cividad Real
	Uragua —	Los Reyes
South diviſion	Tucuman —	St. Jago
	Rio de la Plata	BUENOS AYRES, W. lon. 57-54. S. lat. 34-35.

BAYS AND LAKES.] The principal bay is that at the mouth of the river La Plata, on which ſtands the capital city of Buenos Ayres; and cape St. Antonio, at the entrance of that bay, is the only promontory. This country abounds with lakes, one of which is 100 miles long.

RIVERS.] This country, beſides an infinite number of ſmall rivers, is watered by three principal ones, which united near the ſea, form the famous Rio de la Plata, or Plate River, and which annually overflow their banks; and, on their receſs, leave them enriched with a ſlime, that produces the greateſt plenty of whatever is committed to it.

AIR, SOIL AND PRODUCE.] This vaſt tract is far from being wholly ſubdued or planted by the Spaniards. There are many parts in a great degree unknown to them, or to any other people of Europe. The principal province of which we have any knowledge, is that which is called Rio de la Plata, towards the mouth of the above mentioned rivers. This province, with all the adjacent parts, is one continued level, interrupted by not the leaſt hill for ſeveral hundred miles every way; extremely fertile, and producing cotton in great quantities; tobacco,

tobacco, and the valuable herb, called Paraguay, with a variety of fruits, and prodigious rich paſtures, in which are bred ſuch herds of cattle, that it is ſaid the hides of the beaſts are all that is properly bought, the carcaſe being in a manner given into the bargain. A horſe ſome time ago might be bought for a dollar, and the uſual price for a beaſt choſen out of a herd of 2 or 300, was only four rials. But, contrary to the general nature of America, this country is deſtitute of woods. The air is remarkably ſweet and ſerene, and the waters of La Plata are equally pure and wholeſome.

FIRST SETTLEMENT, CHIEF CITY AND COMMERCE. } The Spaniards firſt diſcovered this country, by ſailing up the river La Plata in 1515, and founded the town of Buenos Ayres, ſo called on account of the excellence of the air, on the ſouth ſide of the river, fifty leagues within the mouth of it, where the river is ſeven leagues broad. This is one of the moſt conſiderable towns in South America, and the only place of traffic to the ſouthward of Brazil. Here we meet with the merchants of Europe and Peru, but no regular fleet comes here, as to the other parts of Spaniſh America; two, or at moſt three, regiſter ſhips, make the whole of their regular intercourſe with Europe. Their returns are very valuable, conſiſting chiefly of the gold and ſilver of Chili and Peru, ſugar and hides. Thoſe who have now and then carried on a contraband trade to this city, have found it more advantageous than any other whatever. The benefit of this contraband is now wholly in the hands of the Portugueſe, who keep magazines for that purpoſe, in ſuch parts of Brazil as lie near this country. Since the Engliſh have got a footing near this coaſt by their new ſettlement of port Egmont in the Falkland iſles, we may ſuppoſe they will make an attempt to a ſhare of this profitable commerce. The trade of Paraguay, and the manners of the people, are ſo much the ſame with thoſe of the reſt of the Spaniſh colonies in South America, that nothing further can be ſaid on thoſe articles.

But we cannot quit this country without ſaying ſomething of that extraordinary ſpecies of commonwealth, which the Jeſuits have erected in the interior parts, and of which theſe crafty prieſts have endeavoured to keep all ſtrangers in the dark.

About the middle of laſt century thoſe fathers repreſented to the court of Spain, that their want of ſucceſs in their miſſions, was owing to the ſcandal which the immorality of the Spaniards never failed to give, and to the hatred which their inſolent behaviour cauſed in the Indians, wherever they came. They inſinuated, that, if it were not for that impediment,

the empire of the gospel might, by their labours, have been extended into the most unknown parts of America; and that all those countries might be subdued to his Catholic majesty's obedience, without expence, and without force. This remonstrance met with success; the sphere of their labours was marked out; an uncontrouled liberty was given to the Jesuits within these limits; and the governors of the adjacent provinces had orders not to interfere, nor to suffer any Spaniards to enter into this pale, without license from the fathers. They on their part agreed, to pay a certain capitation tax, in proportion to their flock; and to send a certain number to the king's works whenever they should be demanded, and the missions should become populous enough to supply them.

On these terms the Jesuits gladly entered upon the scene of action, and opened their spiritual campaign. They began by gathering together about 50 wandering families, whom they persuaded to settle; and they united them into a little township. This was the slight foundation upon which they built a superstructure, which has amazed the world, and added so much power, at the same time that it has brought on so much envy and jealousy, to their society. For when they had made this beginning, they laboured with such indefatigable pains, and with such masterly policy, that, by degrees, they mollified the minds of the most savage nations; fixed the most rambling, and subdued those to their government, who had long disdained to submit to the arms of the Spaniards and Portuguese. They prevailed upon thousands of various dispersed tribes to embrace their religion, and these soon induced others to follow their example, magnifying the peace and tranquillity they enjoyed under the direction of the fathers.

Our limits do not permit us to trace with precision all the steps which were taken in the accomplishment of so extraordinary a conquest over the bodies and minds of so many people. The Jesuits left nothing undone, that could conduce to their remaining in this subjection, or that could tend to encrease their number to the degrees requisite for a well ordered and potent society; and it is said that above 340,000 families, several years ago, were subject to the Jesuits, living in obedience, and an awe bordering upon adoration, yet procured without any violence or constraint: That the Indians were instructed in the military art with the most exact discipline, and could raise 60,000 men well armed: That they lived in towns; they were regularly clad; they laboured in agriculture; they exercised manufactures; some even aspired to the elegant arts; and that nothing could equal the obedience of the people of these missions, except their contentment under it.

it. Some writers however have treated the character of these Jesuits with great severity, accusing them of ambition, pride, and of carrying their authority to such an excess, as to cause even the magistrates, who are always chosen from among the Indians, to be corrected before them with stripes, and to suffer persons of the highest distinction, within their jurisdictions, to kiss the hem of their garments, as the greatest honour. The priests themselves possess large property, all manufactures are theirs, the natural produce of the country is brought to them, and the treasures annually remitted to the superior of the order, seem to evince that zeal for religion is not the only motive of their forming these missions. The fathers will not permit any of the inhabitants of Peru, whether Spaniards, Mestizos, or even Indians, to come within their missions in Paraguay. Some years ago, when part of this territory was ceded by Spain to the crown of Portugal, the Jesuits refused to comply with this division, or to suffer themselves to be transferred from one hand to another, like cattle, without their own consent. And we are informed by the authority of the Gazette, that the Indians actually took up arms; but, notwithstanding the exactness of their discipline, they were easily, and with a considerable slaughter, defeated by the European troops, who were sent to quell them.

SPANISH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

CUBA.] The island of Cuba is situated between 19 and 23 deg. north lat. and between 74 and 87 deg. west lon. 100 miles to the south of cape Florida, and 75 north of Jamaica, and is near 700 miles in length, and generally about 70 miles in breadth. A chain of hills run through the middle of the island from east to west, but the land near the sea is in general level and flooded in the rainy season, when the sun is vertical. This noble island is supposed to have the best soil, for so large a country, of any in America. It produces all the commodities known in the West Indies, particularly ginger, long pepper, and other spices, cassia, fistula, mustic and aloes. It also produces tobacco and sugar, but from the want of hands, and the laziness of the Spaniards, not in such quantities as might be expected. It is owing to the same cause that this large island does not produce, including all its commodities, so much for exportation as our small island of Antigua.

The course of the rivers is too short to be of any consequence, but there are several good harbours in the island, which belong to the principal towns, as that of St. Jago, facing Jamaica, strongly situated, and well fortified, but neither populous nor rich.

rich. That of the Havannah, facing Florida, which is the capital city of Cuba, and a place of great ſtrength and importance, containing about 2000 houſes, with a great number of convents and churches. It was taken however, by the courage and perſeverance of the Engliſh troops in the laſt war, but reſtored in the ſixty-third article of the treaty of peace. Beſides theſe, there is likewiſe Cumberland harbour, and that of Santa Cruz, a conſiderable town thirty miles eaſt of the Havannah.

HISPANIOLA, or ST. DOMINGO.] This iſland was at firſt poſſeſſed by the Spaniards alone, but by far the moſt conſiderable part is now in the hands of the French. However, as the Spaniards were the original poſſeſſors, and ſtill continue to have a ſhare in it, Hiſpaniola is commonly regarded as a Spaniſh iſland.

It is ſituated between the 17th and 21ſt deg. north lat. and the 67th and 74th of weſt lon. lying in the middle between Cuba and Porto-Rico, and is 450 miles long, and 150 broad. The face of the country preſents an agreeable variety of hills, vallies, woods and rivers, and the ſoil is allowed to be extremely fertile, producing ſugar, cotton, indigo, tobacco, maize, and caſſava root. The European cattle are ſo multiplied here, that they run wild in the woods, and as in South America, are hunted for their hides and tallow only. In the moſt barren parts of the rocks, they diſcovered formerly ſilver and gold. The mines however are not worked now. The north-weſt parts, which are in the poſſeſſion of the French, conſiſt of large fruitful plains, which produce the articles already mentioned in vaſt abundance. This indeed is the beſt and moſt fruitful part, of the beſt and moſt fertile iſland in the Weſt Indies, and perhaps in the world.

The moſt antient town in this iſland, and in all the new world, built by Europeans, it St. Domingo. It was founded by Bartholomew Columbus, brother to the admiral, in 1504, who gave it that name in honour of his father Dominic, and by which the whole iſland is ſometimes named, eſpecially by the French. It is ſituated on a ſpacious harbour, and is a large well-built city, inhabited, like the other Spaniſh towns, by a mixture of Europeans, creoles, mulattos, muſtees, and negroes.

The French towns are, cape St. Francois, the capital, which is neither walled nor paled in, and is ſaid to have only two batteries, one at the entrance of the harbour, and the other before the town. It contains about 8000 whites and blacks. Leogane, though inferior in point of ſize, is a good

port, a place of conſiderable trade, and the ſeat of the French government in that iſland. They have two other towns conſiderable for their trade, Petit Guaves, and port Louis.

It is computed that the exports of the French, from the above-mentioned places, are not leſs in value than 1,200,000 l. They likewiſe carry on a contraband trade with the Spaniards, which is much to their advantage, as they exchange French manufactures for Spaniſh dollars.

PORTO RICO.] Situated between 64 and 67 deg. weſt lon. and in 18 deg. north lat. lying between Hiſpaniola and St. Chriſtopher's, is 100 miles long, and 40 broad. The ſoil is beautifully diverſified with woods, vallies, and plains; and is extremely fertile, producing the ſame fruits as the other iſlands. It is well watered with ſprings and rivers; but the iſland is unhealthful in the rainy ſeaſons. It was on account of the gold that the Spaniards ſettled here, but there is no longer any conſiderable quantity of this metal found in it.

Porto Rico, the capital town, ſtands in a little iſland on the north ſide of the main iſland, forming a capacious harbour, and joined to the chief iſland by a cauſey, and defended by forts and batteries, which render the town almoſt inacceſſible. It was, however, taken by Sir Francis Drake, and afterwards by the earl of Cumberland. It is better inhabited than moſt of the Spaniſh towns, becauſe it is the center of the contraband trade carried on by the Engliſh and French with the king of Spain's ſubjects.

VIRGIN ISLANDS.] Situated at the eaſt end of Porto Rico, are extremely ſmall.

TRINIDAD.] Situated between 59 and 62 deg. weſt lon. and in 10 deg. north lat. lies between the iſland of Tobago and the Spaniſh Main, from which it is ſeparated by the ſtreights of Paria. It is about 90 miles long, and 60 broad; and is an unhealthful, but fruitful ſoil, producing ſugar, fine tobacco, indigo, ginger, variety of fruit, and ſome cotton trees, and Indian corn. It was taken by Sir Walter Raleigh, in 1595, and by the French in 1676, who plundered the iſland and extorted money from the inhabitants.

MARGARETTA.] Situated in 64 deg. weſt lon. and 11-30 N. lat. ſeparated from the northern coaſt of New Andaluſia, in Terra-firma, by a ſtreight of 24 miles, is about 40 miles in length, and 24 in breadth; and being always verdant, affords a moſt agreeable proſpect. The iſland abounds in paſture, in maize, and fruit; but there is a ſcarcity of wood and

and water. There was once a pearl fiſhery on its coaſt, which is now diſcontinued.

There are many other ſmall iſlands in theſe ſeas, to which the Spaniards have paid no attention. We ſhall therefore proceed round Cape Horn into the South Seas, where the firſt Spaniſh iſland of any importance is CHILOE, on the coaſt of Chili, which has a governor and ſome harbours well fortified.

JUAN FERNANDES.] Lying in 83 deg. weſt lon. and 33 ſouth lat. 300 miles weſt of Chili. This iſland is uninhabited, but having ſome good harbours, it is found extremely convenient for the Engliſh cruiſers to touch at and water; and here they are in no danger of being diſcovered, unleſs when, as is generally the caſe, their arrival in the South Seas, and their motions, have been made known to the Spaniards by our good friends in Brazil. This iſland is famous for having given riſe to the celebrated romance of Robinſon Cruſoe. It ſeems one Alexander Selkirk, a Scotſman, was left aſhore in this ſolitary place by his captain, where he lived ſome years, until he was diſcovered by captain Woodes Rogers, in 1709; when taken up, he had forgot his native language, and could ſcarcely be underſtood, ſeeming to ſpeak his words by halves. He was dreſſed in goats ſkins, would drink nothing but water, and it was ſome time before he could reliſh the ſhip's victuals. During his abode in this iſland, he had killed 500 goats, which he caught by running them down; and he marked as many more on the ear, which he let go. Some of theſe were caught, 30 years after, by lord Anſon's people; their venerable aſpect and majeſtic beards, diſcovered ſtrong ſymptoms of antiquity.

Selkirk, upon his return to England, was adviſed to publiſh an account of his life and adventures in his little kingdom. He put his papers into the hands of Daniel Defoe, to prepare them for publication. But that induſtrious gentleman, by the help of theſe papers and a lively fancy, transformed Alexander Selkirk into Robinſon Cruſoe, and returned Selkirk his papers again, after defrauding him, by this piece of craft, of the benefits he was ſo juſtly entitled to hope from them.

The other iſlands that are worth mentioning are, the Gallipago iſles, ſituated 400 miles weſt of Peru, under the equator; and thoſe in the bay of Panama, called the King's or Pearl Iſlands.

PORTUGUESE AMERICA;

CONTAINING BRAZIL.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 2500	between	the equator and 35 S. latitude
Breadth 700		35 and 60 west longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the mouth of the river Amazon, and the Atlantic Ocean, on the north; by the same ocean, on the east; by the mouth of the river Plata, south; and by a chain of mountains, which divide it from Paraguay and the country of Amazons, on the west.

On the coast are three small islands, where ships touch for provisions in their voyage to the South-Seas, viz. Fernando, St. Barbara, and St. Catharine's.

SEAS, BAYS, HARBOURS, AND CAPES. The Atlantic Ocean washes the coast of Brazil on the north-east and east, upwards of 3000 miles, forming several fine bays and harbours; as the harbours of Panambuco, All-Saints, Porto-Seguro, the port and harbour of Rio Janeiro, the port of St. Vincent, the harbour of St. Gabriel, and the port of St. Salvador, on the north shore of the river La Plata.

The principal capes are, Cape Roque, Cape St. Augustine, Cape Trio, and Cape St. Mary, the most southerly promontory of Brazil.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, AIR, CLIMATE AND RIVERS. The name of Brazil was given to this country, because it was observed to abound with a wood of that name. To the northward of Brazil, which lies almost under the equator, the climate is hot, boisterous, and unwholesome, subject to great rains and variable winds, particularly in the months of March and September, when they have such deluges of rain, with storms and tornadoes, that the country is overflowed. But to the southward, beyond the tropic of Capricorn, there is no part of the world that enjoys a more serene and wholesome air, refreshed with the soft breezes of the ocean on one hand, and the cool breath of the mountains on the other. The land near the coast is in general rather low than high, but exceeding pleasant, it being interspersed with meadows and woods; but on the west, far within land, are mountains from whence issue many noble streams, that fall into the great rivers Amazon

and

and La Plata, others running acroſs the country from eaſt to weſt till they fall into the Atlantic Ocean, after meliorating the lands which they annually overflow, and turning the ſugar mills belonging to the Portugueſe.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] In general the ſoil is extremely fruitful, producing ſugar, which being clayed, is whiter and finer than our muſcovado, as we call our unrefined ſugar. Alſo tobacco, hides, indigo, ipecacuanha, balſam of Copaibo, Brazil wood, which is of a red colour, hard and dry, and is chiefly uſed in dying, but not the red of the beſt kind; it has likewiſe ſome place in medicine, as a ſtomachic and reſtringent.

The animals here are the ſame as in Peru and Mexico. The produce of the ſoil was found very ſufficient for ſubſiſting the inhabitants, until the mines of gold and diamonds were diſcovered; theſe, with the ſugar plantations, occupy ſo many hands, that agriculture lies neglected; and, in conſequence, Brazil depends upon Europe for its daily food.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] The portrait given us of the manners and cuſtoms of the Portugueſe in America, by the moſt judicious travellers, is very far from being favourable. They are deſcribed as a people, who, while ſunk in the moſt effeminate luxury, practiſe the moſt deſperate crimes. Of a temper hypocritical and diſſembling; of little ſincerity in converſation, or honeſty in dealing; lazy, proud, and cruel. In their diet, penurious; for, like the inhabitants of moſt ſouthern climates, they are much more fond of ſhew, ſtate, and attendance, than of the pleaſures of free ſociety, and of a good table; yet their feaſts, which are ſeldom made, are ſumptuous to extravagance. When they appear abroad, they cauſe themſelves to be carried out in a kind of cotton hammocks, called ſerpentines, which are borne on the negroes ſhoulders, by the help of a bamboo, about twelve or fourteen feet long. Moſt of theſe hammocks are blue, and adorned with fringes of the ſame colour: they have a velvet pillow, and above the head a kind of teſter, with curtains; ſo that the perſon carried cannot be ſeen, unleſs he pleaſes; but may either lie down or ſit up, leaning on his pillow. When he has a mind to be ſeen, he pulls the curtains aſide, and ſalutes his acquaintance whom he meets in the ſtreets; for they take a pride in complimenting each other in their hammocks, and will even hold long conferences in them in the ſtreets; but then the two ſlaves who carry them, make uſe of a ſtrong well-made ſtaff, with an iron fork at the upper end, and pointed below with iron: this they ſtick faſt in the ground, and reſt the bamboo, to which the hammock is fixed,

on two of these, till their master's business or compliment i over. Scarce any man of fashion, or any lady, will pass the streets without being carried in this manner.

TRADE AND CHIEF TOWNS.] The trade of Portugal is carried on upon the same exclusive plan on which the several nations of Europe trade with their colonies of America; and it more particularly resembles the Spanish method, in not sending out single ships, as the convenience of the several places, and the judgment of the European merchants, may direct; but by annual fleets, which sail at stated times from Portugal, and compose three flotas, bound to as many ports in Brazil; namely, to Fernambuco, in the northern part; to Rio Janeiro, at the southern extremity; and to the Bay of All-Saints, in the middle.

In this last is the capital, which is called St. Salvador, and sometimes the city of Bahia, and where all the fleets rendezvous on their return to Portugal. This city commands a noble, spacious, and commodious harbour; it is built upon an high and steep rock, having the sea upon one side, and a lake, forming a crescent, investing it almost wholly so as nearly to join the sea, on the other. The situation makes it in a manner impregnable by nature; and they have besides added to it very strong fortifications. It is populous, magnificent, and, beyond comparison, the most gay and opulent city in all Brazil.

The trade of Brazil is very great, and increases every year; which is the less surprising, as the Portuguese have opportunities of supplying themselves with slaves for their several works at a much cheaper rate than any other European power that has settlements in America; they being the only European nation that has established colonies in Africa, and from hence they import between 40 and 50,000 negroes annually, all of which go into the amount of the cargo of the Brazil fleets for Europe. Of the diamonds there is supposed to be returned to Europe to the amount of 130,000 l. This, with the sugar, the tobacco, the hides, the valuable drugs for medicine and manufactures, may give some idea of the importance of this trade, not only to Portugal, but to all the trading powers of Europe.

The chief commodities the European ships carry thither in return, are not the fiftieth part of the produce of Portugal: they consist of the woollen goods, of all kinds, from England, France, and Holland; the linens and laces of Holland, France, and Germany; the silks of France and Italy; silk and thread stockings, hats, lead, tin, pewter, iron, copper, and all sorts of utensils wrought in these metals, from England; as well as salt-fish, beef, flour, and cheese. Oil they have

from Spain: wine, with ſome fruit, is nearly all they are ſupplied with from Portugal.

England is at preſent moſt intereſted in the trade of Portugal, both for home conſumption and what they want for the uſe of the Brazils. However, the French have become very dangerous rivals to us in this, as in many other branches of trade.

Hence it is principally that Brazil is the richeſt, moſt flouriſhing, and moſt growing eſtabliſhment in America. Their export of ſugar, within 40 years, is grown much greater than it was, though antiently it made almoſt the whole of their exportable produce, and they were without rivals in the trade. Their tobacco is remarkably good, though not raiſed in ſuch large quantities as in our American colonies. The northern and ſouthern parts of Brazil abound with horned cattle; theſe are hunted for their hides only, of which no leſs than 20,000 are ſent annually to Europe.

The Portugueſe were a conſiderable time poſſeſſed of Brazil before they diſcovered the treaſures of gold and diamonds, which have ſince made it ſo conſiderable. Their fleets rendezvous in the bay of All-Saints, to the amount of 100 ſail of large ſhips, in the month of May or June, and carry to Europe a cargo little inferior in value to the treaſures of the flota and galeons. The gold alone, great part of which is coined in America, amounts to near four millions ſterling; but part of this is brought from their colonies in Africa, together with ebony and ivory.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] This country was firſt diſcovered by Americus Veſpuſio, in 1498, but the Portugueſe did not plant it till 1549, when they fixed themſelves at the Bay of All-Saints, and founded the city of St. Salvador. They met with ſome interruption at firſt from the court of Spain, who conſidered the whole continent of South America as belonging to them. However, the affair was at length made up by treaty; and it was agreed that the Portugueſe ſhould poſſeſs all the country lying between the two great rivers Amazon and Plata, which they ſtill enjoy. The French alſo made ſome attempts to plant colonies on this coaſt, but were driven from thence by the Portugueſe, who remained without a rival till the year 1580, when in the very meridian of proſperity, they were ſtruck by one of thoſe blows which inſtantly decides the fate of kingdoms: don Sebaſtian, the king of Portugal, loſt his life in an expedition againſt the Moors in Africa, and by that event the Portugueſe loſt their liberty, being abſorbed into the Spaniſh dominions.

The Dutch, ſoon after this, having thrown off the Spaniſh yoke, and not ſatisfied with ſupporting their independency by a ſucceſsful defenſive war, and fluſhed with the juvenile ardor of a growing commonwealth, they purſued the Spaniards into the remoteſt receſſes of their extenſive territories, and grew rich, powerful, and terrible, by the ſpoils of their former maſters. They particularly attacked the poſſeſſions of the Portugueſe; they took almoſt all their fortreſſes in the Eaſt Indies, and then turned their arms upon Brazil, where they took ſeven of the captainſhips or provinces; and would have ſubdued the whole colony, had not their career been ſtopt by the archbiſhop, at the head of his monks, and a few ſcattered forces. The Dutch were, however, about the year 1654, entirely driven out of Brazil; but their Weſt-India company ſtill continuing their pretenſions to this country, and harraſſing the Portugueſe at ſea, the latter agreed, in 1661, to pay the Dutch eight tuns of gold, to relinquiſh their intereſt in that country; which was accepted; and the Portugueſe have remained in peaceable poſſeſſion of all Brazil from that time, till about the end of 1762, when the Spaniſh governor of Buenos Ayres, hearing of a war between Portugal and Spain, took, after a month's ſiege, the Portugueſe frontier fortreſs called St. Sacrament; but, by the treaty of peace, it was reſtored.

FRENCH AMERICA.

THE poſſeſſions and claims of the French before the laſt war, as appears by their maps, conſiſted of almoſt the whole continent of North America; which vaſt country they divided into two great provinces, the northern of which they called Canada (comprehending a much greater extent than the Britiſh province of that name) and in which they included a great part of our provinces of New-York, New-England, and New-Scotland. The ſouthern province they called Louiſiana, in which they included a part of Carolina. This diſtribution, and the military diſpoſition which the French made to ſupport it, formed the principal cauſe of the laſt war between Great Britain and that nation, the iſſue of which is well known to all the world. For while the French were rearing their infant colonies, and with the moſt ſanguine hopes, forming vaſt deſigns of an extenſive empire, one wrong ſtep in their politics loſt them the whole; their imaginary empire, which exiſted only upon the face of their maps, vaniſhed like ſmoke. They over-rated their ſtrength; and by commencing hoſtilities many years too ſoon, they were driven

from

from Canada, and forced to yield to Great Britain all that fine country of Louiſiana eaſtward of the Miſſiſippi. At the treaty of peace, however, they were allowed to keep poſſeſſion of the weſtern banks of that river, and the ſmall town of New Orleans, near the mouth of it; which, in 1769, they ceded to Spain, for reaſons unknown to the public.

The French therefore, from being one of the greateſt European powers in that quarter, and to the Britiſh colonies a very dangerous neighbour and rival; have, in the manner we have ſeen, loſt all footing in North America; but on the ſouthern continent they have ſtill a ſettlement which is called Cayenne, or Equinoctial France, and is ſituated between the equator and fifth degree of north latitude, and between the 50th and 55th of weſt longitude. It extends 240 miles along the coaſt of Guiana, and near 300 miles within land; bounded by Surinam, on the north; by the Atlantic Ocean, eaſt; by Amazonia, ſouth; and by Guiana, weſt. The chief town is Caen.

All the coaſt is very low, but within land there are fine hills very proper for ſettlements; the French have, however, not yet extended them ſo far as they might; but they raiſe the ſame commodities which they have from the Weſt-India iſlands, and in no inconſiderable quantity. They have alſo taken poſſeſſion of the iſland of Cayenne, on this coaſt, at the mouth of the river of that name, which is about 45 miles in circumference. The iſland is very unhealthy; but having ſome good harbours, the French have here ſome ſettlements, which raiſe ſugar and coffee.

FRENCH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

THE French were amongſt the laſt nations who made ſettlements in the Weſt-Indies; but they made ample amends by the vigour with which they purſued them, and by that chain of judicious and admirable meaſures which they uſed in drawing from them every advantage that the nature of the climate would yield; and in contending againſt the difficulties which it threw in their way.

They are ſenſible that as the mother country is ultimately to receive all the benefit of their labours and acquiſitions, the proſperity of their plantations muſt be derived from the attention with which they are regarded at home. For this reaſon, the plantations are particularly under the care and inſpection of the council of commerce, a board compoſed of twelve of the moſt conſiderable officers of the crown, aſſiſted by the deputies of all the conſiderable trading towns and cities in

France, who are chosen out of the richest and most intelligent of their traders, and paid a handsome salary for their attendance at Paris, from the funds of their respective cities. This council sits once a week, when the deputies propose plans for redressing every grievance in trade, for raising the branches that are fallen, for extending new ones, for supporting the old, and, in fine, for every thing that may improve the working, or promote the vent of their manufactures, according to their own lights, or to the instructions of their constituents. When they are satisfied of the usefulness of any regulation, they propose it to the royal council, where their report is always received with particular attention. An edict to enforce it accordingly issues; and is executed with a punctuality that distinguishes their government, and which alone can render the wisest regulations any thing better than serious mockeries. To this body, the care of the plantations is particularly entrusted.

The government of their several colonies, is a governor, an intendant, and a royal council. The governor is invested with a great deal of power; which, however, on the side of the crown, is checked by the intendant, who has the care of the king's rights, and whatever relates to the revenue: and on the side of the people, it is checked by the royal council, whose office it is to see that the people are not oppressed by the one, nor defrauded by the other: and they are all checked by the constant and jealous eye which the government at home keeps over them; the officers of all the ports of France being charged, under the severest penalties, to interrogate all captains of ships coming from the colonies, concerning the reception they met with at the ports to which they have sailed? how justice was administered to them? what charges they were made liable to, and of what kinds?

That the colonies may be as little burthened as possible, and that the governor may have less temptation to stir up troublesome intrigues, or favour factions in his government, his salary is paid by the crown: he has no perquisites, and is strictly forbidden to carry on any trade, or to have any plantations in the islands or on the continent; or any interest whatever, in goods or lands, within his government, except the house he lives in, and a garden for his convenience and recreation. All the other officers are paid by the crown, out of the revenues of the mother country. The fortifications are built and repaired, and the soldiers paid out of the same funds.

In general, their colonies pay no taxes; but when, upon any extraordinary emergency, taxes have been raised, they were very moderate. The duties upon the export of their produce

produce at the Weſt India iſlands, or at its import into France, is next to nothing; in both places hardly making two per cent. What commodities go to them pay no duties at all.

Their other regulations, reſpecting the judges of the admiralty, lawſuits, recovery of debts, lenity to ſuch as have ſuffered by earthquakes, hurricanes, or bad ſeaſons; the peopling their colonies, number of whites to be employed by the planters, and, laſtly, the management of negroes, cannot be ſufficiently admired; and would, doubtleſs, be of great uſe, were ſome of them introduced into our ſugar iſlands, where proper regulations in many reſpects ſeem to be much wanted.

We have already mentioned the French colony upon the Spaniſh iſland of Hiſpaniola, or St. Domingo, as the moſt important and valuable of all their foreign ſettlements, and which they poſſeſs through the indolence of the Spaniards on that iſland, or the partiality of their court to the French nation. We ſhall next proceed to the iſlands of which the French have the ſole poſſeſſion, beginning with the large and important one of

MARTINICO.] Which is ſituated between 14 and 15 deg. of north lat. and in 61 deg. weſt lon. lying about 40 leagues north weſt of Barbadoes, is about 60 miles in length, and half as much in breadth. The inland part of it is hilly, from which are poured out upon every ſide, a number of agreeable and uſeful rivers, which adorn and enrich this iſland in a high degree. The produce of the ſoil is ſugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, and ſuch fruits as are found in the neighbouring iſlands. But ſugar is here, as in all the Weſt India iſlands, the principal commodity, of which they export a conſiderable quantity annually. Martinico is the reſidence of the governor of the French iſlands in theſe ſeas. Its bays and harbours are numerous, ſafe, and commodious; and ſo well fortified, that they uſed to bid defiance to the Engliſh, who in vain attempted this place. However, in the laſt war, when the Britiſh arms were triumphant in every quarter of the globe, this iſland was added to the Britiſh empire, but it was given back at the treaty of peace.

GUADALUPE.] So called by Columbus, from the reſemblance of its mountains to thoſe of that name in Spain, is ſituated in 16 deg. north lat. and in 62 weſt lon. about 30 leagues north of Martinico, and almoſt as much ſouth of Antigua; being 45 miles long, and 38 broad. It is divided into two parts by a ſmall arm of the ſea, or rather a narrow channel, through which no ſhips can venture; but the inhabitants

bitants pass it in a ferry-boat. Its soil is equally fertile with that of Martinico, producing sugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, &c. This island is in a flourishing condition, and its exports of sugar, almost incredible. Like Martinico, it was formerly attacked by the English, who gave up the attempt; but in 1759, it was reduced by the British arms, and was given back at the peace of 1763.

ST. LUCIA.] Situated in 14 deg. north lat. and in 61 deg. west lon. 80 miles north-west of Barbadoes, is 23 miles in length, and 12 in breadth. It received its name from being discovered on the day dedicated to the virgin martyr St. Lucia. The English first settled on this island in 1637. From this time they met with various misfortunes from the natives and French; and at length it was agreed on between the latter and the English, that this island, together with Dominica and St. Vincent, should remain neutral. But the French, before the late war broke out, began to settle these islands; which, by the treaty of peace, were yielded up to Great Britain, and this island to France. The soil of St. Lucia, in the valleys, is extremely rich. It produces excellent timber, and abounds in pleasant rivers, and well situated harbours.

ST. BARTHOLOMEW, DESEADA, AND MARIGALANTE, } Are three small islands lying in the neighbourhood of Antigua and St. Christophers, and are of no great consequence to the French, except in time of war, when they give shelter to an incredible number of privateers, which greatly annoy our West India trade. It would therefore be good policy in Great Britain, upon the breaking out of a war with France, immediately to take possession of these islands, which would seem to be a matter of no great difficulty, as they have been frequently reduced by the English, and as frequently given back to the French; who have often, and upon many occasions, experienced the generosity of the British court.

DUTCH AMERICA.

Containing SURINAM, on the Continent of SOUTH AMERICA.

AFTER the Portuguese had dispossessed the Dutch of Brazil in the manner we have seen; and after they had been entirely removed out of North America, they were obliged

to conſole themſelves with their rich poſſeſſions in the Eaſt Indies, and to ſit down content in the Weſt with Surinam; a country once in the poſſeſſion of England, but of no great value whilſt we had it, and which we ceded to them in exchange for New York; and with two or three ſmall and barren iſlands in the north ſea, not far from the Spaniſh Main.

Surinam, or Dutch Guiana, is ſituated between 5 and 7 deg. north lat. extending 100 miles along the coaſt from the mouth of the river Oronoque, north, to the river Maroni, or French Guiana, ſouth. The climate of this country is generally reckoned unwholeſome; and a conſiderable part of the coaſt is low and covered with water. The chief ſettlement is at Surinam, a town built on a river of the ſame name; and the Dutch have extended their plantations 30 leagues above the mouth of this river. The colony is now in the moſt flouriſhing ſituation, not only with Europe, but with the Weſt-India iſlands. Their chief trade conſiſts in ſugar, a great deal of cotton, coffee of an excellent kind, tobacco, flax, ſkins, and ſome valuable dying drugs. They trade with our North American colonies, who bring hither horſes, live cattle, and proviſions; and take home a large quantity of molaſſes; but their negroes are only the refuſe of thoſe they have for the Spaniſh market.

DUTCH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

ST. EUSTATIA.] SITUATED three leagues north-weſt of St. Chriſtopher's, and is only a mountain about 29 miles in compaſs, riſing out of the ſea like a pyramid, and almoſt round. But, though ſo ſmall, and inconveniently laid out by nature, the induſtry of the Dutch have made it turn out to very good account; and it is ſaid to contain 5000 whites, and 15,000 negroes. The ſides of the mountain are laid out in very pretty ſettlements; but they have neither ſprings nor rivers. They raiſe here ſugar and tobacco; and this iſland, as well as Curaſſou, is engaged in the Spaniſh contraband trade, for which, however, it is not ſo well ſituated; and it draws the ſame advantage from its conſtant neutrality. Its ſituation renders it the ſtrongeſt of all the Weſt-India iſlands, there being but one good landing-place, which may be eaſily defended by a few men; and the haven is commanded by a ſtrong fort.

CURASSOU.] Situated in 12 deg. north lat. 9 or 10 leagues from the continent of Terra Firma, is 30 miles long and

and 10 broad. It ſeems as if it were fated, that the ingenuity and patience of the Hollanders ſhould every where, both in Europe and America, be employed in fighting againſt an unfriendly nature; for the iſland is not only barren, and dependent upon the rains for its water, but the harbour is naturally one of the worſt in America: yet the Dutch have entirely remedied that defect; they have upon this harbour one of the largeſt, and by far the moſt elegant and cleanly towns in the Weſt Indies. The public buildings are numerous and handſome; the private houſes commodious; and the magazines large, convenient, and well filled. All kind of labour is here performed by engines; ſome of them ſo well contrived, that ſhips are at once lifted into the dock.

Though this iſland is naturally barren, the induſtry of the Dutch has brought it to produce a conſiderable quantity both of tobacco and ſugar; it has, beſides, good ſalt-works, for the produce of which there is a briſk demand from the Engliſh iſlands, and their colonies on the continent. But what renders this iſland of moſt advantage to the Dutch, is the contraband trade which is carried on between the inhabitants and the Spaniards, and their harbour being the rendezvous to all nations in time of war.

The Dutch ſhips from Europe touch at this iſland for intelligence, or pilots, and then proceed to the Spaniſh coaſts for trade, which they force with a ſtrong hand, it being very difficult for the Spaniſh guarda coſtas to take theſe veſſels; for they are not only ſtout ſhips, with a number of guns, but are manned with large crews of choſen ſeamen, deeply intereſted in the ſafety of the veſſel and the ſucceſs of the voyage. They have each a ſhare in the cargo, of a value proportioned to the ſtation of the owner, ſupplied by the merchants upon credit, and at prime coſt. This animates them with an uncommon courage, and they fight bravely, becauſe every man fights in defence of his own property. Beſides this, there is a conſtant intercourſe between this iſland and the Spaniſh continent.

Curaſſou has numerous warehouſes, always full of the commodities of Europe and the Eaſt-Indies. Here are all ſorts of woollen and linen cloth, laces, ſilks, ribbons, iron utenſils, naval and military ſtores, brandy, the ſpices of the Moluccas, and the calicoes of India, white and painted. Hither the Dutch Weſt-India, which is alſo their African company, annually bring three or four cargoes of ſlaves; and to this mart the Spaniards themſelves come in ſmall veſſels, and carry off not only the beſt of the negroes, at a very high price, but great quantities of all the above ſorts of goods; and

and the ſeller has this advantage, that the refuſe of warehouſes and mercers ſhops, with every thing that is grown unfaſhionable and unſaleable in Europe, go off here extremely well; every thing being ſufficiently recommended by its being European. The Spaniards pay in gold and ſilver, coined or in bars, cacao, vanilla, jeſuits bark, cochineal, and other valuable commodities.

The trade of Curaſſou, even in time of peace, is ſaid to be annually worth to the Dutch no leſs than 500,000 l. but in time of war, the profit is ſtill greater, for then it becomes the common emporium of the Weſt-Indies: it affords a retreat to ſhips of all nations, and at the ſame time refuſes none of them arms and ammunition to deſtroy one another. The intercourſe with Spain being then interrupted, the Spaniſh colonies have ſcarce any other market from whence they can be well ſupplied either with ſlaves or goods. The French come hither to buy the beef, pork, corn, flour, and lumber, which the Engliſh bring from the continent of North-America, or which is exported from Ireland; ſo that, whether in peace or in war, the trade of this iſland flouriſhes extremely.

The trade of all the Dutch American ſettlements was originally carried on by the Weſt-India company alone: at preſent, ſuch ſhips as go upon that trade, pay two and a half per cent. for their licenſes: the company, however, reſerve to themſelves the whole of what is carried on between Africa and the American iſlands.

The other iſlands, Bonaire and Aruba, are inconſiderable in themſelves, and ſhould be regarded as appendages to Curaſſou, for which they are chiefly employed in raiſing cattle and other proviſions.

The ſmall iſlands of Saba and St. Martins, ſituated at no great diſtance from St. Euſtatia, hardly deſerve to be mentioned: the latter is partly inhabited by the Engliſh.

DANISH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

ST. THOMAS.] AN inconſiderable member of the Caribbees, ſituated in 64 deg. weſt lon. and 18 north lat. about 15 miles in circumference, and has a ſafe and commodious harbour.

ST. CROIX, OR SANTA CRUZ.] Another ſmall and unhealthy iſland, lying about five leagues eaſt of St. Thomas, ten or twelve leagues in length, and three or four where it is broadeſt. Theſe iſlands, ſo long as they remained in the hands

hands of the Daniſh Weſt-India company, were ill managed, and of little conſequence to the Danes; but that wiſe and benevolent prince, the late king of Denmark, bought up the company's ſtock, and laid the trade open; and ſince that time the iſland of St. Thomas has been ſo greatly improved, that it is ſaid to produce upwards of 3000 hogſheads of ſugar of 1000 weight each, and others of the Weſt-India commodities in tolerable plenty. In time of war, privateers bring in their prizes here for ſale; and a great many veſſels trade from hence along the Spaniſh Main, and return with money in ſpecie or bars, and valuable merchandize. As for Santa Cruz, from a perfect deſert a few years ſince, it is beginning to ſettle faſt; ſeveral perſons from the Engliſh iſlands, ſome of them of great wealth, have gone to ſettle there, and have received very great encouragement to do ſo.

Theſe two nations, the Dutch and Danes (and we may now add the French) hardly deſerve to be mentioned among the proprietors of America; their poſſeſſions there are comparatively nothing. But as they appear extremely worthy of the attention of theſe powers, and as the ſhare of the Dutch is worth to them at leaſt 600,000 l. a year, what muſt we think of our extenſive and valuable poſſeſſions? what attention do they not deſerve from us? and what may not be made of them by that attention?

"There ſeems to be a remarkable providence (ſays an ingenious and polite writer) in caſting the parts, if I may uſe that expreſſion, of the ſeveral European nations who act upon the ſtage of America. The Spaniard, proud, lazy, and magnificent, has an ample walk in which to expatiate; a ſoft climate to indulge his love of eaſe, and a profuſion of gold and ſilver to procure him all thoſe luxuries his pride demands, but which his lazineſs would refuſe him.

The Portugueſe, naturally indigent at home, and enterprizing rather than induſtrious abroad, has gold and diamonds as the Spaniard has, wants them as he does, but poſſeſſes them in a more uſeful, though a leſs oſtentatious manner.

The Engliſh, of a reaſoning diſpoſition, thoughtful and cool, and men of buſineſs rather than of great induſtry, impatient of much fruitleſs labour, abhorrent of conſtraint, and lovers of a country life, have a lot which indeed produces neither gold nor ſilver; but they have a large tract of a fine continent; a noble field for the exerciſe of agriculture, and ſufficient to furniſh their trade without laying them under great difficulties. Intolerant as they are of the moſt uſeful reſtraints, their commerce flouriſhes from the freedom every man

man has of purſuing it according to his own ideas, and directing his life after his own faſhion.

The French, active, lively, enterprizing, pliable, and politic; and tho' changing their purſuits, always purſuing the preſent object with eagerneſs, are, notwithſtanding, tractable and obedient to rules and laws, which bridle their diſpoſitions, and wind and turn them to proper courſes. Theſe people have a country (when Canada was in their poſſeſſion) where more is to be effected by managing the people than by cultivating the ground; where a peddling commerce, that requires conſtant motion, flouriſhes more than agriculture, or a regular traffic; where they have difficulties which keep them alert by ſtruggling with them, and where their obedience to a wiſe government (meaning the excellent regulations already mentioned reſpecting the French colonies in America) ſerves them for perſonal wiſdom. In the iſlands, the whole is the work of their policy, and a right turn their government has taken.

The Dutch have got a rock or two, on which to diſplay the miracles of frugality and diligence, (which are their virtues) and on which they have exerted theſe virtues, and ſhewn thoſe miracles."

TERRA-INCOGNITA, or unknown Countries.

In AMERICA.

IN North America, towards the pole, are Labrador or New-Britain, New North and South Wales, New-Denmark, &c. very little known. The inhabitants, like thoſe of Nova Zembla, Greenland, Groenland, and the northern parts of Siberia, are few, and theſe ſavage; low in ſtature, and of an ugly appearance, ſcarcely reſembling any thing human. They live upon the raw fleſh of whales, bears, foxes, &c. and go muffled up in ſkins, the hairy ſides next their bodies. In theſe unhoſpitable regions, their nights (as may be ſeen in the table of climates in the Introduction) are from one to ſix months, and the earth bound up in impenetrable ſnow; ſo that the miſerable inhabitants live under ground great part of the year. Again, when the ſun makes his appearance, they have a day of equal length.

All that vaſt tract on the back of the Britiſh ſettlements, from Canada and the lakes to the Pacific Ocean, which waſhes America on the weſt, is perfectly unknown to us, no European having ever travelled thither. From the climate and

and ſituation of the country, it is ſuppoſed to be fruitful; it is inhabited by innumerable tribes of Indians, many of whom uſed to reſort to the great fair of Montreal, even from the diſtance of 1000 miles, when that city was in the hands of the French.

In South America, the country of Guiana, extending from the equator to the eighth degree of north latitude, and bounded by the river Oronoque on the north, and the Amazones on the ſouth, is unknown, except a ſlip along the coaſt, where the French at Cayenne and the Dutch at Surinam, have made ſome ſettlements; which, from the unhealthfulneſs of the climate, almoſt under the equator, and other cauſes, can hardly be extended any conſiderable way back.

The country of Amazonia, ſo called from the great river of that name, has never been thoroughly diſcovered, though it is ſituated between the European colonies of Peru and Brazil, and every where navigable by means of that great river and its branches. Some attempts have been made by the Spaniards and Portugueſe, but being always attended with vaſt difficulties, ſo that few of the adventurers ever returned back, and no gold being found in the country as they expected, no European nation has hitherto made any ſettlement there.

Patagonia, at the ſouthern extremity of America, is ſometimes deſcribed as part of Chili; but as neither the Spaniards, nor any other European nation, have any colonies here, it is almoſt unknown, and is generally repreſented as a barren unhoſpitable country. And here in 52½ deg. ſouth lat. we fall in with the ſtreights of Magellan, having Patagonia, on the north, and the iſlands of Terra del Fuego, on the ſouth. Theſe ſtreights extend from eaſt to weſt 110 leagues, but the breadth in ſome places falls ſhort of one. They were firſt diſcovered by Magellan, a Portugueſe in the ſervice of Spain, who ſailed through them, in the year 1520, and thereby diſcovered a paſſage from the Atlantic to the Pacific or Southern Ocean. He has been ſince conſidered as the firſt navigator that ſailed round the world; but having loſt his life in a ſkirmiſh with ſome Indians before the ſhip's return to Europe, the honour of being the firſt circum-navigator has been diſputed in favour of the brave Sir Francis Drake, who in 1574 paſſed the ſame ſtreight in his way to India, from which he returned to Europe by the cape of Good-Hope. In 1616, La Maire, a Dutchman, keeping to the ſouthward of theſe ſtraits, diſcovered, in lat. 54½, another paſſage, ſince known by the name of Straits La Maire, and this paſſage, which has been generally preferred by ſucceeding navigators, is called doubling cape Horn.

Horn. The author of Anſon's voyage, however, from fatal experience, adviſes mariners to keep clear of theſe ſtreights and iſlands, by running down to 61 or 62 deg. ſouth lat. before they attempt to ſet their face weſtward, towards the South-Seas; but the extreme long nights and intenſe cold in thoſe latitudes, render that paſſage practicable only in the months of January and February, which there is the middle of ſummer.

In ASIA.

TOWARDS the north-eaſt, are Yeſdo, Kamſchatſka, and other countries or iſlands, which the Ruſſians are daily diſcovering, but are imperfectly known even to that court, and ſuppoſed to be joined to North-America, or very near that part of the globe.

Below the Molucca iſles, in the Eaſt-Indies, are New-Guinea, Carpentaria, New Holland, Dieman's Land, and, a little farther, New Zealand; regions diſcovered by the Dutch and Engliſh about the middle of the laſt century, and are ſuppoſed to be a vaſt continent, entirely ſeparated from Aſia or America; but our knowledge of them, even at this time, is very imperfect, our navigators having only ſailed along the coaſts, which ſtretch from the equator to 44 deg. of ſouth lat. by whom we learn that the natives are black, go naked, and in ſome places are very numerous.

Beſides theſe countries, the Europeans are daily making diſcoveries of iſlands that are ſcattered up and down the Pacific ocean; and it is generally believed that there are many large tracts of land towards the ſouth-pole, of which at preſent we know nothing.

A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE,

Containing the Names and Situations of the chief Cities, Towns, Seas, Gulphs, Bays, Streights, Capes, and other remarkable Places in the known World. Collected from the moſt authentic Charts, Maps and Obſervations.

Towns.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quart.*	*Latitude.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Aberdeen,	Aberdeenſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	57-22N.	1-40W.
Acapulco,	Mexico,	North	Amer.	17-10N.	101-40W.
Adriatic Sea, or G. of Venice,	between	Italy & Turkey,	Europe, Mediterranean Sea.		
Adrianople,	Romania,	Turkey,	Europe	42-00N.	26-30 E.
Agra,	Agra,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	26-43N.	76-30 E.
Air,	Airſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-30N.	4-35W.
Aleppo,	Syria,	Turkey,	Aſia	35-42N.	37-24 E.
Alexandria,	Lower Egypt,	Turkey,	Africa	31-10N.	30-19 E.
Albany,	New York,	North	Amer.	42-48N.	73-30W.
Algiers,	Algiers,	Barbary,	Africa	36-50N.	3-16 E.
Amboyna,	Amboyna Iſle,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	4-25 S.	127-25 E.
Amsterdam,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-23N.	5-04 E.
Annapolis,	Nova Scotia,	North	Amer.	45-00N.	64-00W.
Annapolis,	Maryland,	North	Amer.	39-00N.	76-50W.
Antioch,	Syria,	Turkey,	Aſia	36-30N.	32-46 E.
Antwerp,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-13N.	4-29 E.
Archipelago,	Iſlands of	Greece,	Europe, Mediter. Sea.		
Archangel,	Dwina,	Ruſſia,	Europe	64-30N.	40-30 E.
Aſtracan,	Aſtracan,	Ruſſia,	Aſia	47-00N.	52-00 E.
Athens,	Achaia,	Turkey,	Europe	37-58N.	24-05 E.
Atlantic Ocean,	ſeparates	Eu. Aſia, Afr.	from America		
Ava,	Ava,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	20-20N.	95-30 E.
Bay of Biſcay	Coaſt of	France,	Europe, Atlantic Ocean.		
— of Beng.	Coaſt of	India,	Aſia, Indian Ocean.		
Baltic Sea,	between	Ger. & Swed.	Europe, Atlantic Ocean.		
Baldivia,	Chili,	South	Amer.	39-35 S.	81-10W.
Balbec,	Syria,	Turkey,	Aſia	33-40N.	37-00 E.
Barcelona,	Catalonia,	Spain,	Europe	42-26N.	2-18 E.
Baſtia,	Corſica Iſle,	Italy,	Europe	42-20N.	9-40 E.
Bath,	Somerſetſhire,	England,	Europe	51-27N.	2-32W.
Bagdat,	Eyraca Arab.	Turkey,	Aſia	33-40N.	45-00 E.
Baſſora,	Eyraca Arab.	Turkey,	Aſia	30-45N.	48-00 E.
Batavia,	Java Iſle,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	6-00 S.	107-00 E.
Bazil,	Bazil,	Switzerland,	Europe	47-40N.	7-40 E.
Belfaſt,	Ulſter,	Ireland,	Europe	54-39N.	6-30W.
Bender,	Beſſarabia,	Turkey,	Europe	46-40N.	29-00 E.
Bergen,	Bergen,	Norway,	Europe	60-10N.	5-40 E.
Berlin,	Brandenburg,	Germany,	Europe	52-33N.	13-32 E.
Bern.	Bern,	Switzerland,	Europe	47-00N.	7-20 E.
Berwick,	Berwick,	Scotland,	Europe	55-48N.	1-45W.
Belgrade,	Servia,	Turkey,	Europe	45-00N.	21-20 E.
Bencoolen,	Sumatra Iſle,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	3-55 S.	101-00 E.
Bilboa,	Biſcay,	Spain,	Europe	43-26N.	3-18W.
Birmingham,	Warwickſhire,	England,	Europe	52-30N.	1-50W.

Towns.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quart.*	*Latitude.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Bombay,	Bombay Isle,	East India,	Asia	19-00N.	71-30 E.
Bokharia,	Usbec	Tartary,	Asia	39-15N.	67-00 E.
Bourdeaux,	Guienne,	France,	Europe	44-50N.	00-38W.
Borroughstonness,	Linlithgowsh.	Scotland,	Europe	55-58N.	3-44W.
Boston,	Lincolnshire,	England,	Europe	53-10N.	00-25 E.
BOSTON,	Massachusets,	New England,	Amer.	42-20N.	70-40W.
Breda,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-40N.	4-40 E.
Brest,	Bretany,	France,	Europe	48-23N.	4-25W.
Bremen,	Low. Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	53-25N.	8-20 E.
BRESLAU,	Silesia,	Bohemia,	Europe	51-15N.	16-50 E.
Bristol,	Somersetshire,	England,	Europe	51-33N.	2-40W.
British Sea,	between	Brit. & Germ.	Europe,	Atlantic Ocean.	
Black, or Euxine Sea,	Turkey in	Europe and	Asia.		
BRUSSELS,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	50-50N.	4-06 E.
Bruges,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-16N.	3-05 E.
Brunswick,	Low. Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	52-30N.	10-30 E.
Buda,	Lower	Hungary,	Europe	47-40N.	19-20 E.
BURLINGTON,	Jersey,	North	Amer.	40-08N.	75-00W.
BUENOS AYRES,	La Plata,	South	Amer.	34-35 S.	57-54W.
CAIRO,	Lower	Egypt,	Africa	30-00N.	32-00 E.
Cagliari,	Sardinia,	Italy,	Europe	39-25N.	9-38 E.
CACHAO,	Tonquin,	East India,	Asia	21-30N.	105-00 E.
Calais,	Picardy,	France,	Europe	50-58N.	1-54 E.
Cambletown,	Argyleshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-30N.	5-40W.
Cambridge,	Cambridgesh.	England	Europe	52-15N.	00-05 E.
Cadiz,	Andalusia,	Spain,	Europe	36-33N.	6-01W.
Calcutta,	Bengal,	East India,	Asia	22-00N.	87-00 E.
Canterbury,	Kent,	England,	Europe	51-16N.	1-15 E.
Candia,	Candy Island,	Turkey,	Asia	35-19N.	25-23 E.
CANTON,	Canton,	China,	Asia	23-14N.	113-06 E.
CAMBODIA,	Siam,	East India,	Asia	13-30N.	105-00 E.
Carlisle,	Cumberland,	England,	Europe	54-47N.	2-35W.
Carthage ruins,	Tunis,	Barbary,	Africa	36-30N.	9-00 E.
CARTHAGENA	Terra Firma,	South	Amer.	10-28N.	77-00W.
Cardigan,	Cardiganshire,	Wales,	Europe	52-10N.	4-38W.
Candy,	Ceylone I.	East India,	Asia	7-54N.	79-00 E.
Caspian Sea,	Russian	Tartary,	Asia.		
Cassel,	Hesse-Cassel,	Germany,	Europe	51-20N.	9-20 E.
Cape Clear,	Cork,	Ireland,	Europe	51-10N.	9-40W.
—— Finistere,	Galicia,	Spain,	Europe	43-12N.	10-05W.
—— Vincent,	Algarve,	Portugal,	Europe	36-53N.	9-06W.
—— Verd,		Negroland,	Africa	14-43N.	17-20W.
—— of Good Hope,	Hottentots,	Caffraria,	Africa	34-07 S.	19-35 E.
—— Comorin,	Hither India,	Mogul Empire,	Asia	7-50N.	77-30 E.
—— Florida,	East Florida,	North	Amer.	24-57N.	80-30W.
—— Horn,	Delfuego Isle,	South	Amer.	56-35 S.	79-55W.
Cattegate Sea,	between	Swed. & Denm.	Europe	Atlantic Ocean.	
Ceuta,	Fez	Morocco,	Africa	35-54N.	6-30W.

Towns.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quart.*	*Latitude.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Cheſter,	Cheſhire,	England,	Europe	53-15N.	3-00W.
CHARLES TOWN,	South Carolina	North	Amer.	32-45N.	79-12W.
Civita Vech.	Pope's Territ.	Italy,	Europe	42-05N.	12-30 E.
COPENHAGEN	Zealand Iſle,	Denmark,	Europe	55-41N.	12-50 E.
Cork,	Munſter,	Ireland,	Europe	51-49N.	8-40W.
Coventry,	Warwickſhire,	England,	Europe	52-25N.	1-25W.
CONSTANTINOPLE,	Romania,	Turkey,	Europe	41-00N.	28-56 E.
Conſtance,	Swabia,	Germany,	Europe	47-37N.	9-12 E.
Corinth,	Morea,	Turkey,	Europe	37-30N.	23-00 E.
Cracow,	Little Poland,	Poland,	Europe	50-00N.	19-30 E.
Curaſſou,	Curaſſou Iſle,	Weſt India,	Amer.	11-56N.	68-20W.
Cuſco,	Peru,	South	Amer.	12-25 S.	70-30W.
DAmaſcus,	Syria,	Turkey,	Aſia	33-15N.	37-20 E.
Dantzic,	Polish Pruſſia,	Poland,	Europe	54-22N.	18-36 E.
Dacca,	Bengal,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	23-30N.	89-20 E.
DELLY,	Delly,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	29-00N.	76-30 E.
Delft,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-06N.	4-05 E.
Derbent,	Dagiſtan,	Perſia,	Aſia	41-40N.	50-30 E.
Derby,	Derbyſhire,	England,	Europe	52-58N.	1-30W.
Derry,	Ulſter,	Ireland,	Europe	54-52N.	7-40W.
Dieu,	Malabar,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	21-37N.	69-30 E.
Dover,	Kent,	England,	Europe	51-08N.	1-25 E.
DRESDEN,	Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	51-00N.	13-36 E.
Dundee,	Forfar,	Scotland,	Europe	56-26N.	2-48W.
DUBLIN,	Leinſter,	Ireland,	Europe	53-20N.	6-28W.
Durham,	Durham,	England,	Europe	54-48N.	1-25W.
Dumbarton,	Dumbartonſh.	Scotland,	Europe	55-54N.	4-20W.
Dunkirk,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-00N.	2-20 E.
Dunbar,	Haddington,	Scotland,	Europe	55-58N.	2-25W.
Dumfries,	Dumfrieſſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	55 08N.	3-25W.
ENgl. Chan.	between	Engl. & France,	Europe,	Atlantic Ocean.	
Epheſus,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Aſia	38-01N.	27-53 E.
EDINBURGH,	Edinburghſh.	Scotland,	Europe	55-58N.	3-00W.
Elbing,	Pruſſia,	Poland,	Europe	54-15N.	20-00 E.
Embden,	Lower	Germany,	Europe	53-25N.	7-10 E.
Ethiopian Sea,	Coaſt of	Guinea,	Africa,	Atlantic Ocean.	
Exeter,	Devonſhire,	England,	Europe	50-44N.	3-30W.
FAlkirk,	Stirling,	Scotland,	Europe	55-58N.	3-48W.
Falmouth,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe	50-10N.	5-20W.
Fez,	Fez,	Morocco,	Africa	33-30N.	6-00W.
Ferrol,	Gallicia,	Spain,	Europe	43-30N.	8-40W.
FLORENCE,	Tuſcany,	Italy,	Europe	43-30N.	12-15 E.
Fort St. David,	Coromandel,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	12-05N.	80-55 E.
GEneva,	Geneva,	Switzerland,	Europe	46-20N.	6-00 E.
GENOA,	Genoa,	Italy,	Europe	44-25N.	9-00 E.
Ghent,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51 00N.	3-36 E.
Gibraltar,	Andaluſia,	Spain,	Europe	36-00N.	6-00W.
Glaſgow,	Lanerkſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-50N.	4-05W.
Glouceſter,	Glouceſterſh.	England,	Europe	51-50N.	2-10W.
Goa,	Malabar,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	15-31N.	74-09 E.

Towns.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quart.*	*Latitude.* D.M.	*Long.* D.M.
Gombroon,	Farſiſtan,	Perſia,	Aſia	27-30N.	57-25 E.
Gottenburg,	Gothland,	Sweden,	Europe	58-00N.	11-30 E.
Greenock,	Renfrewſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-52N.	4-22W.
Guam,	Landrone Iſles,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	14-00N.	140-30 E.
G. of Bothnia,	Coaſt of	Sweden,	Europe,	Baltic Sea.	
—— Finland,	between	Swed. & Ruſ.	Europe,	Baltic Sea.	
—— Venice,	between	Italy & Turk.	Europe,	Mediter. Sea.	
—— Ormus,	between	Perſia & Arab.	Aſia,	Indian Ocean.	
—— Perſia,	between	Perſia & Arab.	Aſia	Indian Ocean	
—— St. Lawr.	Coaſt of	New Scotland,	N. Amer.	Atlantic Ocean	
—— Californ.	between	Calif. & Mexico,	N. Amer.	Pacific Ocean.	
—— Mexico,	Coaſt of	Mexico,	N. Amer.	Atlantic Ocean.	
HAGUE,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-10N.	4-00 E.
Hamburg,	Holſtein,	Germany,	Europe	53-41N.	9-40 E.
Helleſpont,	Med. & Bl. Sea,	Europe and	Aſia.		
Hallifax,	Yorkſhire,	England,	Europe	53-45N.	1-52W.
HALLIFAX,	Nova Scotia,	North	Amer.	44-40N.	63-15W.
Hanover,	Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	52-32N.	9-35 E.
Havannah,	Cuba	Iſland,	Amer.	23-00N.	84-00W.
Haerlem,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-20N.	4-10 E.
Hughly,	Bengal,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	21-45N.	87-55 E.
Hereford,	Herefordſhire,	England,	Europe	52-06N.	2-38W.
Hull,	Yorkſhire,	England,	Europe	53-45N.	0-12W.
Hudſon's Bay,	Coaſt of	Labrador	N. Amer.	Northern Ocean.	
ISthmus of Suez,	joins	Africa to	Aſia.		
—— Corinth,	joins the Morea to	Greece,	Europe.		
—— Panama,	joins	North and S.	America.		
—— Malacca,	joins Malacca to	Further India,	Aſia.		
JEDDO,	Japan Iſle,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	36-20N.	139-00 E.
JERUSALEM,	Paleſtine,	Turkey,	Aſia	32-00N.	36-00 E.
Indian Ocean,	Coaſt of	India,	Aſia,	Southern Ocean.	
Inverneſs,	Inverneſsſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	57-33N.	4-02W.
Iriſh Sea,	between	G. Brit. & Irel.	Europe,	Atlantic Ocean.	
ISPAHAN,	Irac Agem,	Perſia,	Aſia	32-50N.	51-30 E.
Ivica,	Ivica Iſle,	Italy,	Europe	38-50N.	1-40 E.
KElſo,	Roxboroughſh.	Scotland,	Europe	55-38N.	2-12W.
Kilmarnock,	Airſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-38N.	4-30W.
Kinſale,	Munſter,	Ireland,	Europe	51-32N.	8-20W.
KINGSTON,	Jamaica,	Weſt India,	Amer.	17-40N.	77-00W.
KONINGSBERG,	Pruſſia,	Poland,	Europe	54-43N.	21-35 E.
LAncaſter,	Lancaſhire,	England,	Europe	54-05N.	2-55W.
Levant Sea,	Coaſt of	Syria,	Aſia,	Mediterranean Sea.	
Lahor,	Lahor,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	32-40N.	75-30 E.
Leith,	Edinburghſh.	Scotland,	Europe	55-58N.	3-00W.
Leeds,	Yorkſhire,	England,	Europe	53-48N.	1-24W.
Leyden,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-12N.	4-05 E.
Leipſic,	Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	51-20N.	12-40 E.
Leiceſter,	Leiceſterſhire,	England,	Europe	52-40N.	1-05W.
Linlithgow,	Linlithgowſh.	Scotland,	Europe	55-56N.	3-30W.
Lincoln,	Lincolnſhire,	England,	Europe	53-15N.	00-27W.
Liſle,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	50-42N.	3-00 E.

Towns.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quart.*	*Latitude.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Limerick,	Munſter,	Ireland,	Europe	52-35N.	8-48W.
Lisbon,	Eſtramadura,	Portugal,	Europe	38-42N.	8-53W.
Lima,	Peru,	South	Amer.	12-15 S.	77-30W.
Litchfield,	Staffordſhire,	England,	Europe	52-43N.	1-40W.
Louisburg,	Cape Breton I.	North	Amer.	45-54N.	59-30W.
Loretto,	Pope's Territ.	Italy,	Europe	43-15N.	14-15 E.
LONDON,	Middleſex,	England,	Europe	51-30N.	*firſt Mer.*
London Derry,	Ulſter,	Ireland,	Europe	55-00N.	7-40W.
Lubec,	Holſtein,	Germany,	Europe	54-00N.	11-40 E.
Lyons,	Lyons,	France,	Europe	45-46N.	4-55 E.
Luxemburg,	Luxemburg,	Netherlands,	Europe	49-40N.	5-40 E.
Macao,	Canton,	China,	Aſia	22-13N.	113-51 E.
Majorca,	Majorca Iſle,	Spain,	Europe	39-30N.	3-03 E.
Madrid,	New Caſtile,	Spain,	Europe	40-30N.	4-15W.
Mancheſter,	Lancaſhire,	England,	Europe	53-30N.	2-22W.
Malta,	Malta Iſle,	Mediterranean,	Europe	35-53N.	14-32 E.
Mantua,	Mantua,	Italy,	Europe	45-20N.	10-47 E.
Malacca,	Malacca,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	2-12N.	101-00 E.
Madraſs,	Coromandel,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	13-11N.	80-32 E.
Manilla,	Philippine I.	Eaſt India,	Aſia	14-20N.	118-00 E.
Marſeilles,	Provence,	France,	Europe	43-15N.	5-20 E.
Medina,	Arab. Deſerta,	Arabia,	Aſia	25-00N.	39-53 E.
Mecca,	Arab. Deſerta,	Arabia,	Aſia	21-45N.	41-00 E.
Mediter. Sea,	between	Europe and	Africa,	Atlantic Ocean.	
Mequinez,	Fez,	Barbary,	Africa	34-30N.	6-00 E.
Messina,	Sicily Iſland,	Mediter. Sea,	Europe	38-30N.	15-40 E.
Mexico,	Mexico,	North	Amer.	20-00N.	103-00W.
Milford Haven,	Pembrokeſhire,	Wales,	Europe	51-45N.	5-15W.
Milan,	Milaneſe,	Italy,	Europe	45-25N.	9-30 E.
Mocho,	Arabia Felix,	Arabia,	Aſia	13-40N.	43-50 E.
Modena,	Modena,	Italy,	Europe	44-45N.	11-20 E.
Montreal,	Canada,	North	Amer.	45-35N.	73-11W.
Montpelier,	Languedoc,	France,	Europe	43-30N.	3-50 E.
Montroſe,	Forfar,	Scotland,	Europe	56-34N.	2-20W.
Morocco,	Morocco,	Barbary,	Africa	30-32N.	6-10W.
Moscow,	Moſcow,	Ruſſia,	Europe	55-45N.	37-51 E.
Munſter,	Weſtphalia,	Germany,	Europe	52-00N.	7-10 E.
Nancy,	Lorrain,	Germany,	Europe	48-44N.	6-00 E.
Nanking,	Nanking,	China,	Aſia	32-00N.	118-30 E.
Naples,	Naples,	Italy,	Europe	41-00N.	14-19 E.
Narva,	Livonia,	Ruſſia,	Europe	59-00N.	27-35 E.
Newcaſtle,	Northumberland,	England,	Europe	55-03N.	1-24W.
Nice,	Piedmont,	Italy,	Europe	43-42N.	7-05 E.
Newport,	Rhode Iſland,	North	Amer.	41-35N.	71-06W.
New York,	New York,	North	Amer.	40-40N.	74-00W.
Nineveh,	Aſſyria,	Turkey,	Aſia	36-00N.	45-00 E.
Nottingham,	Nottinghamſh.	England,	Europe	53-00N.	1-06W.
Northampton,	Northamptonſhire,	England,	Europe	52-15N.	00-55W.
Norwich,	Norfolk,	England,	Europe	52-40N.	1-25 E.

Towns.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quart.*	*Latitude.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
OLympia,	Greece,	Turkey,	Europe	37-30N.	22-00 E.
Olmutz,	Moravia,	Bohemia,	Europe	49-30N.	16-45 E.
Oporto,	Duoro,	Portugal,	Europe	41-10N.	9-00W.
Ormus,	Ormus Isle,	Persia,	Asia	26-50N.	57-00 E.
Oran,	Algiers,	Barbary,	Africa	36-30N.	0-05 E.
Ostend,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-15N.	2-45 E.
Oxford,	Oxfordshire,	England,	Europe	51-45N.	1-15W.
PAcific or Oriental O.	between	Asia and	America.		
Padua,	Venice,	Italy,	Europe	45-30N.	12-15 E.
Paisley,	Renfrewshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-48N.	4-08W.
PALERMO,	Sicily Isle,	Mediterranean,	Europe	38-30N.	13-43 E.
Palmyra,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	33-00N.	39-00 E.
PANAMA,	Darien,	Terra Firma,	Amer.	8-50N.	81-52W.
PARIS,	Isle of France,	France,	Europe	48-50N.	2-25 E.
PARMA,	Parmesan,	Italy,	Europe	44-45N.	10-51 E.
Patna,	Bengal,	East India,	Asia	25-45N.	83-00 E.
PEGU,	Pegu,	East India,	Asia	17-00N.	97-00 E.
Pekin,	Pekin,	China,	Asia	40-00N.	116-28 E.
Pembroke,	Pembrokeshire,	Wales,	Europe	51-45N.	4-50W.
Penzance,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe	50-08N.	6-00W.
PENSACOLA,	West Florida,	North	Amer.	30-22N.	87-20W.
Perth,	Perthshire,	Scotland,	Europe	56-22N.	3-12W.
Perthamboy,	New York,	North	Amer.	40-30N.	74-20W.
Persepolis,	Irac Agem,	Persia,	Asia	30-30N.	54-00 E.
PETERSBURG,	Ingria,	Russia,	Europe	60-00N.	30-25 E.
PHILADELPHIA	Pensylvania,	North	Amer.	40-00N.	75-20W.
Pisa,	Tuscany,	Italy,	Europe	43-36N.	11-15 E.
PLACENTIA,	Newfound. Isle,	North	Amer.	47-26N.	55-00W.
Plymouth,	Devonshire,	England,	Europe	50-26N.	4-15W.
Plymouth,	New England,	North	Amer.	41-48N.	70-25W.
Pondicherry,	Coromandel,	East India,	Asia	12-27N.	80-00 E.
Portsmouth,	Hampshire,	England,	Europe	50-48N.	1-06W.
Portsmouth,	New England,	North	Amer.	43-10N.	70-20W.
Porto Bello,	Darien,	Terra Firma,	Amer.	10-00N.	82-00W.
Port l'Orient,	Bretany,	France,	Europe	47-42N.	3-15W.
Port Royal,	Jamaica Isle,	West India,	Amer.	18-00N.	77-00W.
Potosi,	Peru,	South	Amer.	21-00 S.	67-00W.
PRAGUE,	———	Bohemia,	Europe	50-00N.	14-20 E.
Preston,	Lancashire,	England,	Europe	53-45N.	2-50W.
PRESBURG,	Upper	Hungary,	Europe	48-20N.	17-30 E.
QUEBEC,	Canada,	North	Amer.	46-55N.	69-48W.
Quito,	Peru,	South	Amer.	0-30 S.	78-00W.
RAgusa,	Dalmatia,	Venice,	Europe	42-45N.	18-25 E.
Ratisbon,	Bavaria,	Germany,	Europe	48-56N.	12-05 E.
Revel,	Livonia,	Russia,	Europe	59-00N.	25-07 E.
Rheims,	Champagne,	France,	Europe	49-14N.	4-00 E.
RHODES,	Rhodes Island	Levant Sea,	Asia	36-20N.	28-00 E.
Riga,	Livonia,	Russia,	Europe	56-55N.	24-00 E.
ROME,	Pope's Territ.	Italy,	Europe	41-54N.	12-45 E.
Rosetto,	Egypt,	Turkey,	Africa	31-10N.	41-35 E.
Rotterdam,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-55N.	4-30 E.

Towns.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quart.*	*Latitude.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Rouen,	Normandy,	France,	Europe	49-26N.	1-10 E.
St. Augustin,	East Florida,	North	Amer.	29-45N.	81-12W.
— Domingo,	Hiſpaniola I.	Weſt India,	Amer.	18-20N.	70-00W.
— Helena,	St. Helena,	Iſland,	Africa	16-00 S.	6-30W.
— Jago,	Chili,	South	Amer.	34-00 S.	77-00W.
— Salvador,	Brazil,	South	Amer.	13-00 S.	38-00W.
Sallee,	Fez,	Barbary,	Africa	34-00N.	6-20W.
Samarcand,	Uſbec	Tartary,	Aſia	40-40N.	69-00 E.
Saliſbury,	Wiltſhire,	England,	Europe	51-06N.	1-45W.
Santa Fe,	New Mexico,	North	Amer.	36-00N.	104-00W.
Savannah,	Georgia,	North	Amer.	31-55N.	80-20W.
Sayd, or Thebes	Upper	Egypt,	Africa	27-00N.	32-20 E.
Samaria Ruins,	Holy Land,	Turkey,	Aſia	32-40N.	38-00 E.
St. George's Channel,	between	Engl. & Irel.	Europe,	Atlantic Ocean.	
Scarborough,	Yorkſhire,	England,	Europe	54-18N.	0-10W.
Scone,	Perthſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	56-24N.	3-10W.
Sea of Aſof,	Little Tartary,	Europe &	Aſia,	Black Sea.	
— Marmora,	Turkey in	Europe and	Aſia,	Black Sea.	
— Kamſchatka,	Coaſt of	Kamſchatka,	Aſia,	Pacific Ocean.	
— Korea,	Coaſt of	Korea,	Aſia,	Pacific Ocean.	
Shrewſbury,	Shropſhire,	England,	Europe	52-43N.	2-46W.
Shields,	Durham,	England,	Europe	55-02N.	1-15W.
Sheerneſs,	Kent,	England,	Europe	51-25N.	00-50 E.
Schiras,	Farſiſtan,	Perſia,	Aſia	29-30N.	53-00 E.
Seville,	Andaluſia,	Spain,	Europe	37-15N.	6-05W.
Siam,	Siam,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	14-18N.	100-55 E.
Sidon,	Paleſtine,	Turkey,	Aſia	33-33N.	36-15 E.
Smyrna,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Aſia	38-28N.	29-00 E.
Southampton,	Hampſhire,	England,	Europe	50-55N.	1-25W.
Spaw,	Liege,	Germany,	Europe	50-30N.	5-40 E.
Sound,	between	Denm. & Swed.	Europe,	Baltic Sea.	
Stafford,	Staffordſhire,	England,	Europe	52-50N.	2-00W.
Sterling,	Sterlingſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	56-10N.	3-50W.
Stralſund,	Pomerania,	Germany,	Europe	54-23N.	13-22 E.
Straſburg,	Alſace,	Germany,	Europe	48-38N.	7-51 E.
Stockholm,	Uplandia,	Sweden,	Europe	59-30N.	18-08 E.
Streights of Dover,	between	Eng. & France,	Europe,	Eng. Channel.	
— Gibraltar,	between	Europe and	Africa,	Mediter. Sea.	
— Babelmandel,	between	Africa and	Aſia,	Red Sea.	
— Ormus,	between	Perſia & Arab.	Aſia,	Perſian Gulph.	
— Malacca,	between	Malac. & Sumat.	Aſia,	Indian Ocean.	
— Magellan,	in Patagonia	South	Amer.	Atlant. & S. Sea.	
— La Maire,	in Patagonia	South	Amer.	Atlant. & S. Sea.	
Suez,	Suez,	Egypt,	Africa	29-50N.	33-27 E.
Sunderland,	Durham,	England,	Europe	54-55N.	1-10W.
Surinam,	Surinam,	South	America	6-00N.	55-30W.
Surat,	Cambaya,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	21-10N.	72-25 E.

Towns.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quart.*	*Latitude.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Syracuſe,	Sicily Iſle,	Mediterranean,	Europe	37-04N.	15-05 E.
TAngier,	Fez,	Barbary,	Africa	35-42N.	5-45W.
Tanjour,	Tanjour,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	11-27N.	79-07 E.
Tauris, or Ecbatana,	Medea,	Perſia,	Aſia	38-20N.	46-30 E.
Teſlis,	Georgia,	Perſia,	Aſia	43-30N.	47-00 E.
Tetuan,	Fez,	Barbary,	Africa	35-40N.	5-18W.
Thorn,	Regal Pruſſia,	Poland,	Europe	52-56N.	19-00 E.
TOBOLSKI,	Siberia,	Ruſſia,	Aſia	58-00N.	69-00 E.
Toledo,	New Caſtile,	Spain,	Europe	39-45N.	4-12W.
Toulon,	Provence,	France,	Europe	43-07N.	6-00 E.
Trapeſond,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Aſia	41-50N.	40-30 E.
Trent,	Trent,	Germany,	Europe	46-05N.	11-02 E.
Troy Ruins,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Aſia	39-30N.	26-30 E.
TRIPOLI,	Tripoli,	Barbary,	Africa	33-30N.	14-30 E.
Tripoli,	Syria,	Turkey,	Aſia	34-30N.	36-15 E.
TUNIS,	Tunis,	Barbary,	Africa	36-47N.	10-00 E.
TURIN,	Piedmont,	Italy,	Europe	44-50N.	7-30 E.
Tyre,	Judea,	Turkey,	Aſia	32-32N.	36-00 E.
UTrecht,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-07N.	5-00 E.
VEra Cruz,	Old Mexico,	North	Amer.	18-30N.	97-48W.
Verſailles,	Iſle of France,	France,	Europe	48-40N.	2-15 E.
VIENNA,	Auſtria,	Germany,	Europe	48-20N.	16-20 E.
WArwick,	Warwickſhire,	England,	Europe	52-18N.	1-32W.
WARSAW,	Warſovia,	Poland,	Europe	52-15N.	21-05 E.
Waterford,	Munſter,	Ireland,	Europe	52-12N.	7-16W.
Whitehaven,	Cumberland,	England,	Europe	54-38N.	3-36W.
WILLIAMSBURG,	Virginia,	North	Amer.	37-12N.	76-48W.
Wells,	Somerſetſhire,	England,	Europe	51-12N.	2-40W.
Wincheſter,	Hampſhire,	England,	Europe	51-06N.	1-15W.
Worms,	Lower Rhine,	Germany,	Europe	49-38N.	8-05 E.
Worceſter,	Worceſterſhire,	England,	Europe	52-10N.	2-15W.
YArmouth,	Norfolk,	England,	Europe	52-45N.	1-48 E.
York,	Yorkſhire,	England,	Europe	54-00N.	1-03W.

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